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ABSTRACT

This handbooks for participants contains materials for a three-day workshop on stress management in corrections. The workshop is intended for correctional administrators and managers, to enable them to produce a stress-management plan for identifying and remedying such problems as employee disability, alcoholism, drug abuse, and distressed inmate-staff problems. It begins with these introductory materials: overview of the National Criminal Justice Research Utilization Program, description of workshop design, and summary of data collected during a needs assessment survey. The twelve-session workshop is presented according to a three-day schedule (days 1 and 3 are half-day sessions). Materials for each session may include a goal statement, objectives, synopsis, information sheets, worksheets, small group discussion suggestions, list of references, and copies of visual aids. Titles of the twelve sessions are (1) Orientation and Introduction, (2) Stress in Corrections: Personal and Organizational, (3) State Team Stress Identification: Team Meeting I, (4) Organizational Stress in Corrections, (5) Responses to Stress, (6) Stress Response Identification: Team Meeting II, (7) Strategy Design, (8) Strategy Presentation, (9) Strategy Profiles, (10) Strategic Planning, (11) Development of Strategic Plans: Team Meeting III, and (12) Summary and Close. (YLB)

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United States Department of Justice
Office of Justice Assistance, Research and Statistics
National Institute of Justice

MANAGEMENT OF STRESS IN CORRECTIONS

PARTICIPANT'S HANDBOOK

CRIMINAL JUSTICE RESEARCH UTILIZATION PROGRAM

Prepared by:

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For

National Institute of Justice

John Thomas
Program Manager

This handbook was prepared by University Research Corporation, Sheldon S. Steinberg, Project Director, pursuant to Contract No. J-LEAA-004-79 awarded by the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration, U.S. Department of Justice, under the Omnibus Crime Control and Safe Streets Act of 1968, as amended. The points of view or opinions expressed do not necessarily represent official policy or positions of the U.S. Department of Justice.

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U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

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TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

Stress is endemic to modern life. It is equally true that human existence has always been marked by stress, whatever the historical era. To live is to encounter stress. Stress is the ever-present response of mind, body, or behavior to the ongoing demands of life.

(Walt Schafer, Stress, Distress and Growth, 1978)

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
• Acknowledgments	1
• Contributors	3
• National Criminal Justice Research Utilization Program	5
• Workshop Design: Management of Stress In Corrections	13
• Biographical Profiles	15
• Planning Conference Participants	19
• Needs Assessment Survey	21
• Workshop Schedule	33
DAY I	
Session 1: Orientation and Introduction	37
Session 2: Stress In Corrections: Personal and Organizational	43
Session 3: State Team Stress Identification: Team Meeting I	65
Session 4: Organizational Stress in Corrections	69
DAY II	
Session 5: Responses to Stress	91
Session 6: Stress Response Identification: Team Meeting II	101
Session 7: Strategy Design	105
Session 8: Strategy Presentation	113
Session 9: Strategy Profiles	115
DAY III	
Session 10: Strategic Planning	125
Session 11: Development of Strategic Plans: Team Meeting III	141
Session 12: Summary and Close	149
• Workshop Follow-on Requests	150
• Workshop Schedule	153

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

A focus on the prison environment as a "stressful" situation may seem trite or obvious. Prisons are not meant to be "nice." Yet we require that a considerable number of people be employed in that environment, in addition to those persons involuntarily sentenced to institutions. Our primary concern in this handbook is directed toward those employees in prisons--guards, correction officers, superintendents, lieutenants, psychologists, etc.--and the effect of the exceptional environment in which they work upon their lives, and upon the goals of the prison.

Available research in the area of job related stress is substantial. Studies strictly dealing with the environment of the prison are few. A clinical study by psychiatrist Carroll Brodsky stood out early in our search as a singular call for concern. Dr. Frances Cheek and her colleague Marie Miller, with their important survey research on correctional stress and the concurrent development of stress management training for inmates and correctional officers were our next discoveries. The work of these three persons gave direction to our program when little else was available.

The curriculum design and development for this workshop resulted in a product reflective of the work of many persons: Martha Bramhall assisted in the overall design as well as contributing materials for session two on the personal stress cycle; Peter Marinakis helped give shape to the overall training design, goals, and objectives; Norma Gluckstern exercised constant vigilance over the training materials developed to insure a grounding in her institutional experience; Alvin Cohn developed sessions on the design of strategies (10), and on strategic planning (10); Sheldon Steinberg introduced the clear and articulate focus of the program on stress as a biological or life process; and, Etta Anderson served as the principal technical writer for our efforts, weaving together varied and often disparate research models and evidence into coherent presentations. Michael Chapman, our team secretary, managed to produce an astonishing amount of neat and accurate copy under severe time constraints, and we are all grateful to him.

We are indebted to Louis G. Biondi, formerly of NILECJ, for his initial confidence in the development of this topic, and to Mark Levine, Administrator of the Baltimore County Jail, for his early advice and sense of the importance of this topic to correctional administrators.

Louis Mayo and John Thomas of the Training and Testing division of NILECJ have also rendered helpful critical assistance in the final stages of our program.

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CRIMINAL JUSTICE RESEARCH UTILIZATION PROGRAM

WHAT IT IS

The National Institute of Justice (NIJ), part of the U.S. Department of Justice, supports wide-ranging research in criminal justice, including the testing and evaluation of innovative programs. As new knowledge is gained, the Institute follows through with the essential step of communicating what has been learned and any related policy, program, and research implications.

The Criminal Justice Research Utilization Program, administered by NIJ's Office of Development, Testing, and Dissemination, makes research and evaluation results accessible to criminal justice officials, other government executives, community leaders, and researchers. The goal--to influence crime control and criminal justice improvement efforts and map out future research strategies.

HOW IT WORKS

The Criminal Justice Research Utilization Program (CJRUP) consists of three elements: Research Utilization Workshops, Special National Workshops, and Field Test Support.

Research Utilization Workshops (RUWs)

These are series of workshops held for criminal justice practitioners, government executives, and community leaders on the application of research and evaluation results to public policy and programming.

Research Utilization Workshops address subjects where a body of research findings suggests new program approaches. They are oriented to action or operations and address important needs of state and local governments. The topics chosen are generally based on NIJ Field Test Program Models that outline potential program options and the advantages and disadvantages of each, or research/ evaluation studies.

Now in its fourth year, RUP has presented 12 workshop series across the country. Four new topics are scheduled for 1979-80. Each 3-day workshop is devoted to one topic and attended by 50 to 90 top criminal justice policymakers from the larger jurisdictions in a multistate area.

The four new topics for 1979-80 are:

- Compensating Victims of Crime
  This topic refers to financial recompense for losses suffered as the result of a specific criminal act. Approximately half of the states have victim compensation programs. Variations among these programs are presented, and cost factors and the implications of pending federal legislation discussed. The workshops will introduce recommendations for improving programs for compensating crime victims that can

be used by states having programs as well as states planning to establish a program.

- Community Crime Prevention Planning
  A recently completed 5-year research study provides new insights into what citizens perceive and define as "the crime problem" in their neighborhoods, what they do and view as crime prevention efforts, and the factors affecting their sense of risk or safety. Representatives of police agencies, city administrations, and community organizations examine the policy and program implications of the study, review the experience and evaluations of a range of current crime prevention strategies, and work as teams to identify the participants and skills needed to plan, design, and implement appropriate and responsive programs in their own communities.

- Small Business Security
  Crimes against small businesses, such as burglary, robbery, shoplifting, and employee theft cause losses of about $20 billion a year. Recent research findings and Institute-sponsored Program Models suggest promising techniques for containing or reducing such crimes. In this workshop, police executives, business community representatives, and local government policymakers work as teams to create action plans for preventing or reducing the opportunity for business-related crime.

- Management of Stress in Corrections
  This workshop helps correctional administrators and managers handle job-related stress in prisons. The objective is to enable participants to produce a stress management plan for identifying and remedying such problems as employee disability, alcoholism, drug abuse, and distressed inmate-staff problems.

In the first three years of the program, RUW series were presented on:

- Managing Criminal Investigations
- Developing Sentencing Guidelines
- Juror Usage and Management
- Prison Grievance Mechanisms
- Rape and Its Victims
- Managing (Police) Patrol Operations
- Victim/Witness Services
- Operating a Defender Office
- Improved Probation Strategies
- Maintaining Municipal Integrity
- Health Care in Correctional Institutions
- Managing the Pressures of Inflation

Participants in RUWs receive summary findings of relevant research, comprehensive bibliographic references, individual program planning guides, self-instructional materials, handbooks, and selected readings. Each participant is awarded a certificate of attendance at the workshop's conclusion.

For each RUW topic, replication of the workshop or technical assistance related to the topic is available on a limited basis to states and local jurisdictions interested in implementing the particular program approach. Multimedia packages on most RUW topics are available on request to agencies interested in implementation. Included are videotapes, Institute publications, handbooks, manuals, and other resource documents.

Special National Workshops (SNWs)

Special National Workshops are one-time events designed to establish directions for future research or share information and develop awareness among executives and policymakers.

The SNWs inform researchers and practitioners about important new research and evaluation findings, define appropriate new directions for NIJ research, and meet the needs of groups such as elected officials, planners, and evaluators for information on current research and advanced practices in aspects of criminal justice. These workshops are less operationally oriented than RUWs or Field Tests since they do not represent a particular program design or specific program options. They do, however, have action implications for public policy, present practices, and future research.

The Research Utilization Program assembles a team of nationally recognized experts on each SNW subject. Extensive conference support services are also provided for the workshops, including multimedia development, editing and publication of materials, comprehensive evaluation, research utilization methodology, and logistical support.

In 1979 and 1980, Special National Workshops will be held on:

- Research and Evaluation Methods and the Third National Workshop on Criminal Justice Evaluation--An update of recent developments and methods used to investigate and analyze social programs and criminal justice evaluation procedures.

- Historical Approaches to Studying Crime--Modern-day criminal justice problems approached through an historical perspective of violent and non-violent crimes.

- State Legislative Planning for Correctional Reform--Methods and resources for planning and developing appropriate correctional legislation at the state level.

- Prevention and Detection of Fraud, Waste, and Abuse of Public Funds--A conference of state and local practitioners, researchers, and federal officials to assess needs and develop strategies to prevent and detect fraud, waste, and abuse of public funds.

- The Serious Juvenile Offender--Review of research and development needs for planning (in cooperation with the National Institute of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention).

Previous RUP Special National Workshops were conducted on:

- Stochastic Modeling--A promising new technique for crime analysis.
- Plea Bargaining--Current issues and new research on this judicial process.
- Second National Workshop on Criminal Justice Evaluation--The entire spectrum of criminal justice research and evaluation issues.
- Forensic Science Services and the Administration of Justice--Interdisciplinary exchange of views among various members of the criminal justice community.
- Mental Health Services in Local Jails--Models for improving service delivery.
- The Career Criminal--Implications of research from the NIJ Career Criminal program.
- Argersinger v. Hamlin--Legal counsel for indigents facing jail.
- Update '77; Update '78--The role of local officials in criminal justice decisionmaking.
- Determinate Sentencing--Implications of this trend for the criminal justice system.
- Pretrial Release--Discussion of a demonstration project with judges from all 50 states.
- Crime Control; State of the Art--An update of criminal justice knowledge for governors and representatives of State Planning Agencies.
- Urban Crisis Planning--Simulated planning of responses to hypothetical crisis situations.
- Performance Measurement--Organizational assessment techniques for police, courts, and corrections.

Field Test Support

Field Test Support provides technical assistance and training for staff and policymakers at sites selected to implement NIJ Field Test designs. These designs represent promising new operational approaches to controlling crime or improving criminal justice.

The Field Tests involve carefully designed program strategies that are implemented in a limited number of sites under controlled or quasi-controlled conditions to determine the effectiveness, transferability, and suitability of the concepts for further demonstration.

Key representatives from the Field Test sites receive training and technical assistance designed to:

- Orient test-site staff on the goals, methods, and requirements of the Field Test project
- Build skills in the particular program technology
- Assist in project implementation
- Assist test agencies in conducting technology transfer conferences to familiarize colleagues in nearby jurisdictions with the test experience.

During 1979 and 1980 three field tests will be initiated by NIJ:

- Commercial Security

  The Commercial Security field test--in St. Louis, Missouri; Denver, Colorado; and Long Beach, California--is designed to reduce commercial crime in small retail and service businesses. Aimed at such crimes as robbery, burglary, and larceny, it includes conducting premise security surveys on a saturation basis in selected high-crime commercial neighborhoods as well as intense police-community interaction and follow-up activities to encourage adoption of security recommendations.

- Structured Plea Negotiations

  Though widely criticized and misunderstood, "plea bargaining" in many jurisdictions accounts for 80 to 95 percent of case dispositions. This Field Test will create in participating jurisdictions a structured conference procedure involving not only the defense and prosecuting attorneys, but also a judge, the defendant, and the crime victim. Outcomes sought will include increased consistency and fairness of plea bargaining agreements (in fact and in the public's perceptions), speedier disposition of cases, and smoother operations of the courts.

- Multijurisdictional Sentencing Guidelines

  Four courts of general jurisdiction representing urban, suburban, and rural areas in Florida and Maryland are included in this test. Past sentencing decisions in these courts will be studied to develop sentencing guidelines for use by the judges in the participating courts over a 1-year period. The test is intended to determine the feasibility of using sentencing guidelines as a tool for reducing unwarranted sentencing variation and producing an explicit sentencing policy in diverse jurisdictions.

Other Field Tests receiving support from RUP since 1976 are:

- Managing Criminal Investigations
- Juror Usage and Management
- Neighborhood Justice Centers
- Pre-Release Centers
- Managing (Police) Patrol Operations
- Improved Correctional Field Services.

Results

Each RUW is evaluated within 60 to 90 days after its conclusion. Results to date show that a majority of participants reported positive effects on their activities:

- Health Care in Correctional Institutions--Two-thirds of the medical, correctional, and planning personnel who attended the workshop evaluated their health care procedures and began generating outside support for change. About half revised both their medical record and medication distribution systems and stopped using inmates to deliver health care services.

- Victim/Witness Services--Almost three-fourths of the participants--prosecutors, law enforcement officials, and community organizers--publicized new victim/witness services and sought new advocates for such programs. More than half attempted to increase interagency cooperation in this area.

- Managing Criminal Investigations--Changes in case screening, initial investigations, and management of investigations were reported by about half the participants.

- Juror Usage and Management--Over half the participants instituted changes in their jury procedures after attending this workshop.

- Rape and Its Victims--Over three-fourths of those attending the workshop reported increased cooperation and communication among community agencies providing services to rape victims.

The most recent workshops also have produced significant progress in the initial steps of the change process:

- Maintaining Municipal Integrity--About half the participants reported a heightened awareness of ethical issues and said they have taken steps to assess their jurisdictions' investigative ability, vulnerability to corruption, and regulatory and enforcement capabilities.

- Operating a Defender Office--Over half the participants reviewed their personnel policies. Almost half evaluated their current scope of services and determined areas where additional staff training was needed.

- Improved Probation Strategies--Over half the probation officials at the workshops have subsequently disseminated strategies for improving probation and evaluated their present services. Almost half have reviewed current caseloads and assessed available resources for planning and implementing a more efficient monitoring system.

- Managing Patrol (Police) Operations--Over half the police personnel analyzed their patrol operations using the systematic assessment procedures presented at the workshop.

About the Office of Development, Testing, and Dissemination

The Office of Development, Testing, and Dissemination is responsible for distilling research findings, transforming the theoretical into the practical, and identifying programs with measureable records of success that warrant widespread application. As part of its program, ODTD also provides financial and professional assistance in adapting and testing programs in selected communities. The Office also disseminates information to criminal justice executives nationwide through a variety of forms. The aim is to give criminal justice professionals ready access to promising new approaches.

ODTD has developed a structured, organized system to bridge (1) the operational gap between theory and practice and, (2) the communication gap between researchers and criminal justice personnel scattered across the country. ODTD's comprehensive program provides:

- Practical guidelines for model criminal justice programs
- Research utilization workshops for criminal justice executives in selected model programs based on promising research and evaluation findings
- Field tests of important new approaches in different environments
- On-site training visits for criminal justice executives to agencies operating successful innovative programs
- Clearinghouse and reference services for the international criminal justice community.

WORKSHOP DESIGN
MANAGEMENT OF STRESS IN CORRECTIONS
RESEARCH UTILIZATION WORKSHOP

Stress Management In Corrections will be the subject of a series of Research Utilization Workshops in the 1979-1980 cycle of the National Criminal Justice Research Utilization Program (formerly National Criminal Justice Executive Training Program). The workshop will present information, skills, and strategies to correctional administrators and managers, helping them identify and implement procedures, policies, and programs to manage organizational job-related stress in the prison environment. The specific objective of the workshop will be to enable participants to produce a stress management plan for implementation in their state correctional agencies.

The content areas of the workshop will include:

- Role of the manager in preventing and identifying stress
- Personal and organizational stress
- Organizational stress in prisons
- Potential initiatives and interventions for managing stress in prisons
- Development of a stress management plan for a prison.

Stress Management Techniques

The main themes for training will be the development of administrative, personnel, training, health/mental health, and legislative strategies for combatting the more serious effects of job and organizational stress in corrections. These strategies include:

- Employee Assistance Programs
- Improved Pre-Service and In-Service Training
- Employee self-help groups
- Space utilization techniques
- Monitoring the correctional environment to prevent stress
- Monitoring employee performance to prevent crises.

The focus of this training will be on adaptive organizational response strategies to the stresses and strains of management and personnel in state institutional correctional settings.

Stress and Strain In Prisons

> "The process of developing long-term stress followed a sequence beginning with awareness of change and proceeding through realization that the work environment had become unpleasant. There was a concommitant sense of tension and a pronounced ambivalence about whether to stay on the job or to leave it .... This process is illustrated by the guard who after a prison riot reported, 'I started thinking that all I know was that I would be able to walk in at the beginning of the shift. I never knew that I would be able to walk out'." (Brodsky, 1977).

Events that are landmarks in recent correctional history--the Attica rebellion, the New York correctional officer strike, the Soledad prison escape attempts, and the Walla Walla officer walkout--are stark evidence of the stresses (pressures) and strains (effects of pressure) in the prison environment. Less publicized are the stresses of overcrowding, aged and crumbling buildings, severe budget constraints, court-ordered reforms, and employee dissatisfaction. The effects of these circumstances are even less well known but are evidenced upon close analysis of such indicators as early retirement of employees on medical disability; employee absenteeism, alcoholism, and drug abuse; distressed marital relations; and troubled inmate-staff relations. The costs are enormous. California, for example, pays out disability retirement funds equal to $12,000 per year for each active correctional officer. Medical experts agree that a substantial amount of disability is due to the effects of stress.

Research on the occurrence of job-related stress exists for many work settings--such as industry, the military, and law enforcement--but very little has been done in corrections. Even less has been done--for any work setting--on effective strategies for managing job-related stress.

Participants

The participants invited to this workshop will include state corrections department/division administrators, wardens/superintendents of major state adult correctional institutions, personnel officers, training officers, health and mental health officers, mid-level corrections managers, line-officer representatives, legislative or executive corrections policymakers, and State Planning Agency corrections specialists.

Workshop Information

Between December 1979 and April 1980, the Stress Management in Corrections workshop will be conducted in five locations throughout the United States. The training will take place over a three-day period, from 1 p.m. the first day to 1 p.m. the third day, for a total program of approximately 15 hours. The proceedings will include plenary sessions, small-group meetings, and development of an individualized stress management plan for each participating state corrections agency.

Follow-On Training

Additional training will be offered to selected state agencies and institutions who request further assistance from NILECJ.

Biographical Profiles
Training/Design Team
Management of Stress in Corrections
Research Utilization Workshop

University Research Corporation Staff

JAMES J. DAHL

Mr. Dahl currently serves as Team Leader with the National Criminal Justice Research Utilization Program. He was formerly Senior Associate for Corrections at URC, serving the National Corrections Technical Assistance Project as a consultant in mental health programs, corrections standards, and jail classification. His career in criminal justice began with a brief tour with the New York State Police, and has focused for the last nine years on criminal justice planning, policy analysis, and training.

He has served as Director of the New York State Division of Criminal Justice Services' Standards and Goals Program, with responsibility for statewide criminal justice standards and goals development; Chief Planner of the New York State Division for Youth, which included development of juvenile corrections standards and statewide field services; and, Deputy Director of an RPU, with responsibility for development of programs for law enforcement, courts, corrections, and the District Attorney's office.

SHELDON S. STEINBERG, Ed.D.

Dr. Steinberg has directed the CJRUP since its conception in 1976. He has provided overall leadership to the development of sixteen research utilization workshops this project has conducted for NILECJ. He has assisted various workshop teams in the planning, curriculum development, and training design phases of all topics. Dr. Steinberg has also served as a trainer and group facilitator on selected topics such as "Rape and Its Victims" and "Maintaining Municipal Integrity."

His experience includes teaching health and mental health at the university level; directing professional education activities for a state division of the American Cancer Society; and directing research and training for an urban community mental health center. He also has directed other major training and technical assistance programs.

MICHAEL J. CHAPMAN

Mr. Chapman is currently providing administrative as well as secretarial support to the National Criminal Justice Research Utilization Workshop, Management of Stress in Corrections. Mr. Chapman gained extensive administrative/secretarial experience while attending the University of Maryland and The American University.

Consultant Staff - Training

DAVID H. BRIERTON

Mr. Brierton is a career correctional administrator, and presently Inspector General for the Florida Department of Corrections. He was formerly Superintendent of the Florida State Prison, a maximum security institution, where he instituted innovative management procedures involving line correctional staff in operations planning.

CARROLL M. BRODSKY, M.D.

Dr. Brodsky is a faculty member, Department of Psychiatry, The University of California School of Medicine, and a forerunner in research on long-term stress in prison guards. He is the author of two books on stress and stress management and is also in private practice in San Francisco.

WILLIAM CIUROS, JR.

Mr. Ciuros most recently served as Commissioner of the New York City Department of Corrections, managing and operating one of the largest corrections systems in the United States, with more than 4,500 employees; an annual operating budget of over $135 million; twenty-one maximum security inmate housing institutions and field installations. While serving in posts from corrections officer to Deputy Commissioner for New York State, Mr. Ciuros developed the first three month training curriculum for entry level Correction Officers in New York State. He also directed the Correction Officer training program; developed and taught various labor relations seminars sponsored by AFSCME, AFL-CIO; lectured at Russell Sage College and at Cornell University in New York City. He presently is a consultant in criminal justice and corrections and is working on projects involving private security for banks and corrections planning.

ALVIN W. COHN, D.C[illegible]

Dr. Cohn has had almost 20 years of academic, professional, and administrative experience in the field of criminal justice administration. He has specialized in the development of management and training programs, focusing on organizational theory and development. Dr. Cohn has been on the full-time faculties of The American University and Virginia Commonwealth University and has been a guest lecturer at numerous universities, including Fordham, Pennsylvania State University, University of Delaware, University of Cincinnati, and University of Maryland. He has trained or taught approximately 10,000 persons in the field of criminal justice. While serving as the Director of Training for the National Council on Crime and Delinquency, he developed numerous training programs for correctional and law enforcement agencies throughout the United States. He has also worked in community organizations, juvenile and adult institutions, juvenile aftercare, and adult probation programs. Dr. Cohn is the author of numerous professional articles and is the author or co-author of six books in criminology and criminal justice.

Consultant Staff - Training (Continued)

NORMA B. GLUCKSTERN, Ed.D.

Dr. Gluckstern is Director of the Patuxent Institution, a 600-bed, male, maximum security correctional facility for persons who have committed serious crimes but who are determined to be amenable to treatment and rehabilitation. She is also an adjunct faculty member of the Institute of Criminal Justice at the University of Maryland, where she teaches correctional psychology and community corrections. She was the Director of the Bureau of Programs and Rehabilitation, Prince George's County, Maryland Department of Corrections; a trainer and curriculum developer in the area of corrections for the University Research Corporation; and a faculty member of the Department of Psychology, Catholic University. She has recently been awarded a grant from the National Institute of Corrections to develop training materials for correctional officers. She is co-author of four video-based training manuals in communication skills and of a number of articles in the fields of corrections and psychology.

CECIL PATMON

Mr. Cecil Patmon is currently on the research staff of the Center for Urban Affairs, Northwestern University, as Project Coordinator for the Epilepsy in Prison Project. This project has as an emphasis, the determination of the prevalence of epilepsy among prisoners in a state prison system and the development of criteria for diagnosis and clinical/institutional management of the individual with epilepsy.

Formerly medical services administrator with the Illinois Department of Corrections where he was responsible for the overall medical services administration, including budgeting, personnel policies, staffing, and training, for local institutions, he also provides consultant services in program development and implementation for facility administrators. Previously, he has worked in planning and implementing new programs in the health service areas. Mr. Patmon has served as faculty advisor for the University Without Walls program at Chicago State University, and is on the faculty of Prairie State College.

Consultant Staff - Curriculum Design/Development

ETTA A. ANDERSON, M.A.

Ms. Anderson is a writer, curriculum developer, and training specialist with considerable experience in criminal justice. She is a former faculty member of both the University of Maryland Institute of Criminal Justice and Criminology, and Prince George's Community College, Department of Law Enforcement. Ms. Anderson is the author and co-author of numerous publications in the criminal justice field. Her writing and research experience covers education, training, evaluation, research design, and data analysis in criminal justice programs.

MARTHA F. BRAMHALL, M.S.W.

Ms. Bramhall is an independent social work and human services consultant to numerous social agencies, specializing in training and organizational development for the prevention of employee burn out. A trained and experienced psychotherapist, she has also provided services to individuals and couples in marriage and family counseling, including services to court referred cases of spouse abuse.

PETER G. MARINAKIS, M.A.

Mr. Marinakis served as the Director of Treatment and primary developer of Lantana Correctional Institution, State of Florida, a program awarded exemplary status by the National Institute of Drug Abuse. He serves as a psychologist with the Department of Commerce and is the Employee Assistance Coordinator for the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration. Mr. Marinakis has been a credentialed organizational consultant and psychotherapist in public and private practice for the last six years, providing technical assistance, training, curriculum design and program development to individuals and organizations.

MANAGEMENT OF STRESS IN CORRECTIONS

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MANAGEMENT OF STRESS IN CORRECTIONS: NEEDS ASSESSMENT SURVEY

Summary of Data Collected

Introduction

During October 1979, training needs assessment questionnaires were mailed to state correctional departments in all fifty states and in the District of Columbia.* Surveys were completed and returned by 37 of the agencies that were contacted.* On the basis of the information contained within these questionnaires, the following data were compiled:

1. A listing of the stressors that typically influence correctional officers and administrators.

2. The consequences of stress in prisons for the following individuals: employees, managers, and inmates.

3. The various adaptational responses to organization stress made by each of the following departments within correctional agencies:

   - Administrative
   - Health/Mental Health
   - Personnel
   - Training
   - Legislative/Executive

4. The personal adaptational response to stress of individuals who work within correctional agencies.

5. The relative utility of various training goals, training objectives, and program contents concerning the management of stress in corrections.

The information and statistics obtained in the survey results relating to each of the above items are presented and discussed on the following pages. All of the frequencies contained within the tables to follow are based on relative frequencies.

Relative Importance of Stressors

Many correctional officers and administrators have identified the following items as sources of stress (Stressors). The degree of importance of factors or potential stressors for both correctional officers and administrators who were surveyed is presented in Figure 1.

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*See Appendix A (p. 31) for a complete listing, by state, of the 37 respondents.

FIGURE 1. List of Stressors

	Not Important		Important		Most Important		
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	N
Stressors							
Political Pressures	15	41	17	46	5	14	37
Budget Limitations	4	11	12	32	21	57	37
Government Bureaucracy	6	16	24	65	7	19	37
Unresponsive Legislature	16	43	12	32	8	22	36
ACA Accreditation Standards	13	35	13	35	11	30	37
Employee Unions	13	35	18	49	6	16	37
Overcrowding of Inmates	10	27	12	32	15	41	37
Employee Conflict	10	27	14	38	13	35	37
Supervision of Employees	8	22	15	41	14	38	37
Lack of In-Service Training	8	22	19	51	10	27	37
Interaction with Other Supervisors	7	19	19	51	11	30	37
Maintenance of Inmate Discipline	5	14	12	32	19	51	37
Inmate Rights Compliance	5	14	18	49	14	38	37
Role Conflict/Ambiguity	9	24	18	49	10	27	37
Interaction with Inmates	8	22	19	51	10	27	37
Boredome	13	35	14	38	10	27	37
Problem or Special Inmates	11	30	12	35	13	35	37
Schedule Conflict/Time Management	10	27	14	38	13	35	37

These data suggest that for the respondents, the more important stressors include the following:

- Government Bureaucracy
- Budget Limitations
- Maintenance of Inmate Discipline
- Inmates Rights Compliance
- Interaction with Other Supervisors
- Interaction with Inmates
- Supervision of Employees
- Lack of In-Service Training

In addition, the respondents indicated that the following factors were also significant stressors related to working in correctional institutions:

- Requests for a lot of information
- Changing priorities
- Problems of recruitment and retention
- Crisis management
- Lack of information and diffusion
- Any form of change
- Stigma of being a "government worker"
- Isolation

- Inability to see positive results
- Exposure to cynicism
- Employees at all levels not doing the job the way they have been instructed
- Lack of physical fitness and activities
- Prisoners abusing officers
- Prisoners being combative at initial booking
- Impact of employees' strike
- Lack of communication from administration to line staff
- Race relations
- Community-based interaction with corrections

Consequence of Stress in Prisons: Managers and Employees

Figure 2 contains data that indicate the view of the respondents (who were generally managerial personnel) concerning how problematic various consequences of stress are both for themselves and for other employees.

FIGURE 2. Consequences of Stress in Prisons

		Minor		Intermediate		Major		
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	N
Consequences								
Absences	E*	6	17	12	32	18	50	36
	Y*	23	62	6	17	8	22	37
Excessive Leave Time	E	16	44	10	28	10	28	36
	Y	17	46	13	35	7	19	37
Medical Disability	E	16	44	12	32	8	22	36
	Y	18	49	11	30	8	22	37
Turn Over	E	7	19	13	36	16	44	36
	Y	9	24	14	38	14	38	37
Burn Out	E	9	25	13	36	14	39	36
	Y	13	35	13	35	10	27	37
Alcoholism	E	17	49	11	31	8	22	36
	Y	24	65	10	27	3	8	37
Drug Abuse	E	17	49	10	29	8	22	35
	Y	21	58	8	22	7	19	36
Poor Job Performance	E	8	22	18	49	10	28	36
	Y	10	29	17	49	9	25	37
Physical Illness	E	18	50	9	25	9	25	36
	Y	16	44	12	33	8	22	37

		Minor No.	%	Intermediate No.	%	Major No.	%	N
Consequences (continued)								
Mental Illness	E	21	58	9	25	6	11	36
	Y	23	64	8	22	5	14	37
Family Problems	E	15	43	17	49	3	8	35
	Y	18	50	10	28	8	22	37
Injuries (job-related)	E	16	44	10	28	10	28	36
	Y	17	49	10	28	9	25	37
Strikes (employee)	E	15	42	10	28	11	31	36
	Y	18	50	10	28	8	22	37
Abuse Towards Inmates	E	16	44	10	28	10	28	36
	Y	22	61	8	22	6	17	37
Abuse of Fellow Correctional Officers	E	17	49	9	25	10	28	36
	Y	21	58	8	22	7	19	37
Effects on Others	E	18	55	8	24	7	21	33
	Y	20	59	8	24	6	17	34

E* = Employee
Y* = Yourself

As Figure 2 indicates, managers are more likely to perceive the effects of stress to be more detrimental for other employees than for themselves. For instance, 62% of the respondents reported absences to be a minor consequence of stress, with only 22% reporting it to be a major significance for themselves. On the other hand, 17% of the respondents viewed absences as a minor consequence of stress, with 50% seeing absenteeism as a major consequence for other employees. These findings are congruent with Cheek's (1978) research, in which she found an over reporting of the effects of stress on others (both peers and subordinates) by managerial personnel who were questioned stress, its effects and consequences.

According to the survey results, the following consequences of stress were reported by managers to be of major significance for employees:

- Absences
- Turn Over
- Burn Out
- Strikes

Examining significant consequences of stress for managers, the following factors were the most important:

- Turn Over
- Poor Job Performance
- Burn Out
- Medical Disabilities

Consequences of Stress For Inmates In Prison

Figure 3 contains the data that was reported about the effects of stress on inmates. It should be noted that these data represent the views of correctional personnel and not necessarily those of the inmates.

FIGURE 3. Consequences of Stress for Inmates in Prisons

	Not Important		Important		Most Important		
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	N
Political Pressures	15	41	17	46	5	14	37
Unrest (destructive/disruptive behavior	9	24	13	35	15	41	37
Strikes	13	35	12	32	12	32	37
Lawsuits	5	14	13	35	19	51	37
Discontent	9	24	15	41	13	35	37
Illness	15	41	12	32	10	27	37
Assaults	8	22	18	49	11	30	37
Breakouts	16	43	11	30	10	27	37
Injuries	10	27	17	46	10	27	37

Adaptational Responses to Organizational Stress

In the chart below (Figure 4), the data concerning the use of an interest in adaptational responses to organizational stress exhibited by administrative; health/mental health; personnel; training; and legislative/executive branches of correctional organizations, as well as personal adaptational responses is presented.

FIGURE 4. Adaptational Responses to Organizational Stress

Administrative*	[illegible]		[illegible]		[illegible]		[illegible]		[illegible]	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Design and implement an overall stress management plan for the organization.	-	-	-	-	-	-	17	46	-	-
Review and re-design job assignments and responsibilities to provide clarity of roles, responsibilities, and increase communications.	13	35	3	8	-	-	16	43	-	-
Stimulate and support efforts to mitigate effects of stress by training personnel, health, rehabilitation units.	8	22	6	16	-	-	15	41	1	3
Justify and obtain legislative and executive support for improved management structure.	13	35	4	11	-	-	10	27	4	11
Develop a community education program about corrections and correctional employees.	6	16	5	14	1	3	14	38	1	3
Re-design and improve space utilization, physical environment.	9	24	5	14	-	-	18	49	-	-
Health/Mental Health*										
Monitor employee health/stress level.	2	5	-	-	-	-	21	57	-	-
Monitor inmate health/stress level.	7	19	1	3	-	-	16	43	-	-
Develop organizational stress management plan on health/stress factors.	1	3	-	-	-	-	22	59	3	8
Facilitate employee self-help by referral to health/mental health resources.	8	22	2	5	-	-	23	63	-	-
Screen applicants for stress tolerance.	3	8	4	11	-	-	18	49	1	3
Develop job related standards for hiring.	25	68	4	5	-	-	15	41	-	-
Conduct periodic performance reviews.	28	77	-	-	-	-	12	32	2	5
Facilitate employee self-help groups.	1	3	1	3	-	-	1	30	4	11
Establish an employee assistance program.	11	30	4	11	-	-	10	27	1	3
Implement liberal transfer policies.	12	32	-	-	-	-	9	24	5	14

Personnel Department*	In Use		Controversial		Futile/Misguided		Don't Know Enough About		Not Interested	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Provide sabbaticals for staff.	7	19	-	-	-	-	11	30	1	3
Implement assignment rotation systems.	9	24	1	3	1	3	10	43	-	-
Training*										
Design and implement orientation training on the nature of job stress in the correctional environment, its effects on job performance, and the means to cope with stress.	9	24	4	11	-	-	17	46	-	-
Provide in-service training on ways to cope with stress encountered in organizational change.	11	30	4	11	-	-	16	43	-	-
Encourage the establishment of voluntary training groups of personnel on work/family life stress effects.	1	3	-	-	1	3	12	32	2	5
Facilitate transfers through retraining.	3	18	1	3	-	-	13	35	3	8
Train employee self-help leaders and counselors.	1	3	1	3	-	-	22	59	-	-
Provide adequate budget support for documented correctional initiatives.	12	32	-	-	-	-	10	27	-	-
Consult correctional managers on budget review, and proposed legislative changes.	24	65	-	-	-	-	7	19	-	-
Support programs to manage stress.	6	16	2	5	1	3	10	27	-	-
Effectively communicate the goals and state policies for corrections to the public.	14	38	-	-	-	-	10	27	1	3
Personal*										
Learn how to identify, prevent, and remedy stress in your own life by knowing your manageable stress level.	9	24	-	-	1	3	14	38	-	-
Design a personal stress management plan.	7	19	-	-	2	5	14	38	-	-
Learn and implement techniques of time-management, behavior modification, and others appropriate to managing stress in your own life.	8	22	-	-	2	5	15	41	-	-

Legislative/Executive Branch*	In Use		Experimental		Used/Needed		Not Now Desirable		Not Interested	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Be alert to your stressful effects on others.	12	32	-	-	-	-	11	30	-	-
Allow others the freedom and resources to manage their own stress.	9	24	2	5	1	3	17	46	-	-
Contribute to the recognition and remedy of stress on an organizational level.	12	32	1	3	-	-	16	43	-	-

*N = 37

An examination of the administrative responses to stress reveals that the respondents expressed an overall high level of interest in obtaining information about all of the strategies listed. Justifying and obtaining legislative support and re-designing job assignments were the two most frequently cited strategies presently used by administrative divisions in correctional agencies.

The respondents expressed an even higher interest in obtaining additional information about the various responses that are available in the area of health/mental health. This may be at least partially attributable to the fact that only 3% of the respondents were utilizing an organizational stress management plan; 5% now have the capacity to monitor inmate health/stress level; 19% with the capacity to monitor inmate health/stress level; and 22% presently refer employees to health/mental health resources. Compared to the other organizational divisions of corrections, the health/mental health resources are the least utilized for adaptational responses to organizational stress.

In the personnel department, the strategy that was cited most frequently (68%) by the respondents was the development of job related standards for hiring. In general, there was considerable desire expressed to obtain more information about the other strategies as well.

In the area of training, in-service training was the method of stress reduction used most often by the participants in the survey. As was the case for the other categories, the respondents expressed a good deal of interest in obtaining more information about training strategies to reduce stress.

The least amount of interest was expressed by the respondents in obtaining more information about the legislative/executive branch. However 65% of the subjects replied that they currently utilize correctional managers and proposed legislative changes.

Finally, the results in the area of personal responses indicate a moderate amount of interest in being more informed on the subject. Thirty-two percent of the respondents reported that they presently are alert to their stressful effects on others and that they contribute to the recognition and remedy of stress on the organizational level.

Goals, Objectives, Program Contents

Figure 5 contains the respondents feelings concerning the relative utility of various training goals, training objectives, and the contents of the workshop's programs.

FIGURE 5. Goals, Objectives, Program Contents

	Of Little Use		Some Use		Very Useful	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Training Goals*						
Enable participants to identify the personal and organizational consequences, causes, and management remedies for the occurrence of human stress in the correctional environment.	1	3	6	16	30	81
Training Objectives*						
Participants Will,						
Have a basic understanding of the cycle and stages of human stress;	2	5	4	11	31	84
Identify major points of stress in the correctional environment;	3	8	5	14	29	78
Review policies, procedures, practices to ameliorate stress within the organization;	2	5	7	19	28	77
Develop a strategic plan to aid the management of stress in the correctional environment.	1	3	8	22	28	77
Program Contents*						
Personal stress.	1	3	9	24	27	73
Organizational stress in prisons.	2	5	7	19	28	77
Role of the manager in preventing and identifying stress.	-	-	4	11	33	89
Potential initiatives and interventions for managing stress in prisons.	3	8	9	24	25	68
Development of a stress management plan for a prison.	-	-	4	11	33	89

*N = 37

As the figures indicate, the respondents expressed a high level of enthusiasm in the utility of the goals, objectives, and program contents that were suggested in the questionnaire.

Furthermore, the respondents expressed that they would like more information about the following:

(1) Participants' review of proposed "solution" to stress;

(2) Modification of ideas based on feedback;

(3) Trainee-trainer approach;

(4) The field to receive broadest application of the proposed stress management techniques.

Validation of This Survey

At the actual workshops, a short questionnaire will be distributed to the participants. It will be used in evaluating the reliability of the data in this sample and in providing a broad base of information for future amendments to the training workshops.

APPENDIX A

Respondents	Abbreviation
Alabama	AB
Alaska	AK
Arizona	AZ
California	CA
Colorado	CO
Connecticut	CT
Delaware	DL
Florida	FL
Idaho	ID
Indiana	IN
Kansas	KS
Kentucky	KY
Massachusetts	MA
Michigan	MI
Minnesota	MN
Missouri	MS
Montana	MT
New Hampshire	NH
New Mexico	NM
New York	NY
North Carolina	NC
North Dakota	ND
Ohio	OH
Oklahoma	OK
Oregon	OR
Rhode Island	RI
South Carolina	SC
South Dakota	SD
Tennessee	TN
Utah	UT
Virginia	VA
Vermont	VT
Washington	WA
West Virginia	WV
Wisconsin	WS
Wyoming	WY
Anonymous	AN

N = 37

MANAGEMENT OF STRESS IN CORRECTIONS

RESEARCH UTILIZATION WORKSHOP

Schedule

DAY I

11:30 - 1:00 p.m.	Registration and Coffee
1:00 - 2:00	Introduction
2:00 - 3:00	Stress In Corrections
3:00 - 3:15	Break
3:15 - 4:30	Stress Identification*
4:15 - 5:30	Organizational Stress in Corrections
5:30 - 6:30 p.m.	Social Hour

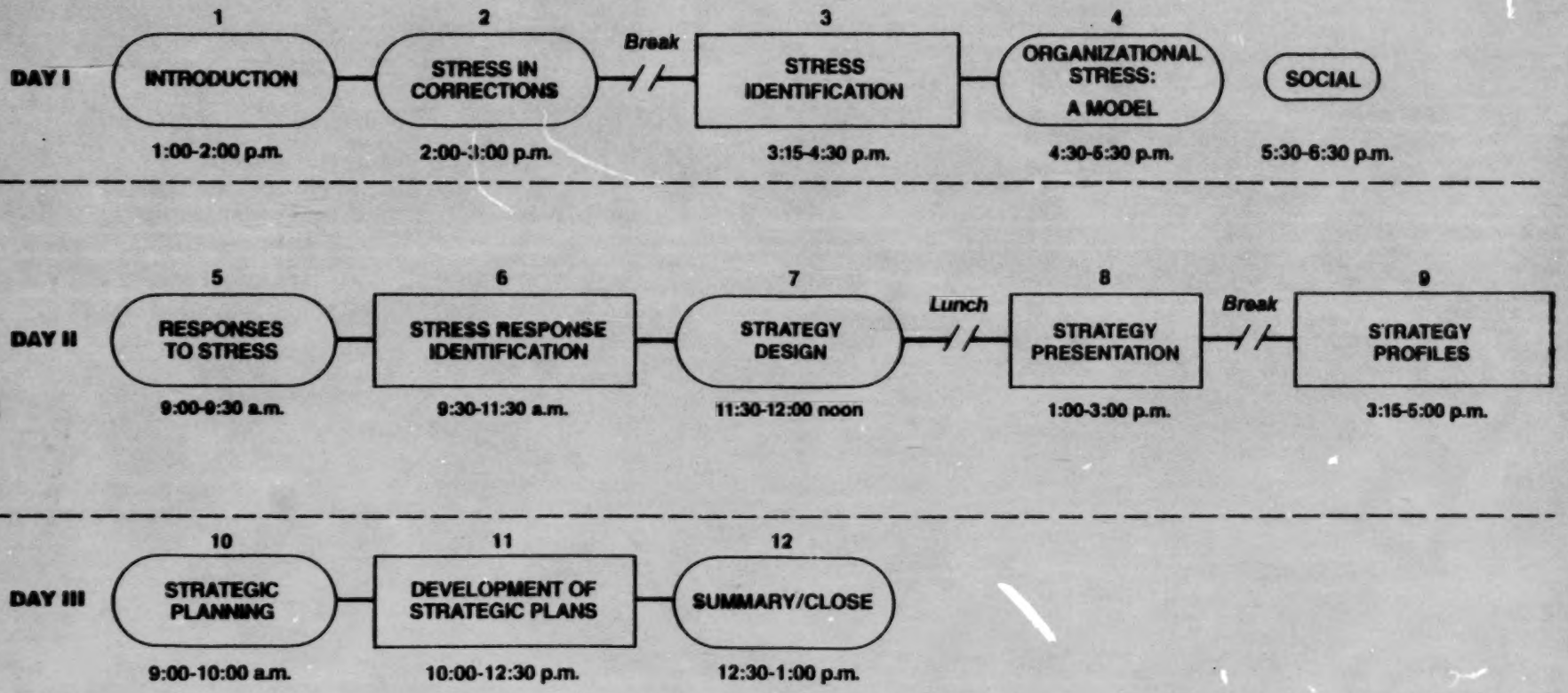
DAY II

9:00 - 9:30 a.m.	Responses to Stress
9:30 - 11:30	Stress Response Identification*
11:30 - 12:00 noon	Strategy Design
12:00 - 1:00 p.m.	Lunch
1:00 - 3:00	Strategy Presentation
3:00 - 3:15	Break
3:15 - 5:00 p.m.	Strategy Profiles**

DAY III

9:00 - 10:00 a.m.	Strategic Planning
10:00 - 12:30 p.m.	Development of Strategic Plans*
12:30 - 1:00 p.m.	Summary and Close

*State groups meet
**Small groups meet


DAY I
1
INTRODUCTION
1:00-2:00 p.m.
2
STRESS IN CORRECTIONS
2:00-3:00 p.m.
Break
3
STRESS IDENTIFICATION
3:15-4:30 p.m.
4
ORGANIZATIONAL STRESS: A MODEL
4:30-5:30 p.m.
SOCIAL
5:30-6:30 p.m.
DAY II
5
RESPONSES TO STRESS
9:00-9:30 a.m.
6
STRESS RESPONSE IDENTIFICATION
9:30-11:30 a.m.
7
STRATEGY DESIGN
11:30-12:00 noon
Lunch
8
STRATEGY PRESENTATION
1:00-3:00 p.m.
Break
9
STRATEGY PROFILES
3:15-5:00 p.m.
DAY III
10
STRATEGIC PLANNING
9:00-10:00 a.m.
11
DEVELOPMENT OF STRATEGIC PLANS
10:00-12:30 p.m.
12
SUMMARY/CLOSE
12:30-1:00 p.m.

Session 1

DAY I

1:00 - 2:00 p.m.

ORIENTATION AND INTRODUCTION

Goal

- Participants will be introduced to goals, objectives, and curriculum outline for the workshop, will become acquainted with presenters and will be given an overview of program materials.

Objectives

Participants will:

- Understand the goal, objectives, and curriculum units for the workshop
- Know the presenters for the workshop
- Be familiar with the training materials to be used in the workshop.

Synopsis

This introductory session provides an orientation to the goals, objectives, and content of the workshop for the participants. The basic problems of stress in corrections are highlighted along with the developmental approach to designing strategies for stress management.

ORIENTATION AND INTRODUCTION

I. Welcome and Introduction

II. Introduction of Workshop Purpose, Scope, Goals

- A. Sponsorship - NIJ
- B. Purpose
- C. Scope
- D. Goals
- E. Objectives

III. Workshop Design

- A. Content Areas
- B. Stress Management Techniques
- C. Stress and Strain in Prisons
- D. Participant Profile
- E. Materials

IV. Needs Assessment Survey - Summary

V. Problem of Stress in Corrections

- A. Changing Health Attitudes in America
- B. National Correctional Manpower Survey
- C. Problems and Trends in Correctional Management
- D. Stress Research
- E. Systems Approach to Stress Management
- F. Costs of Stress

Workshop Goals

To enable participants to identify the personal and organizational causes and consequences of stress in the prison environment and to design stress management strategies.

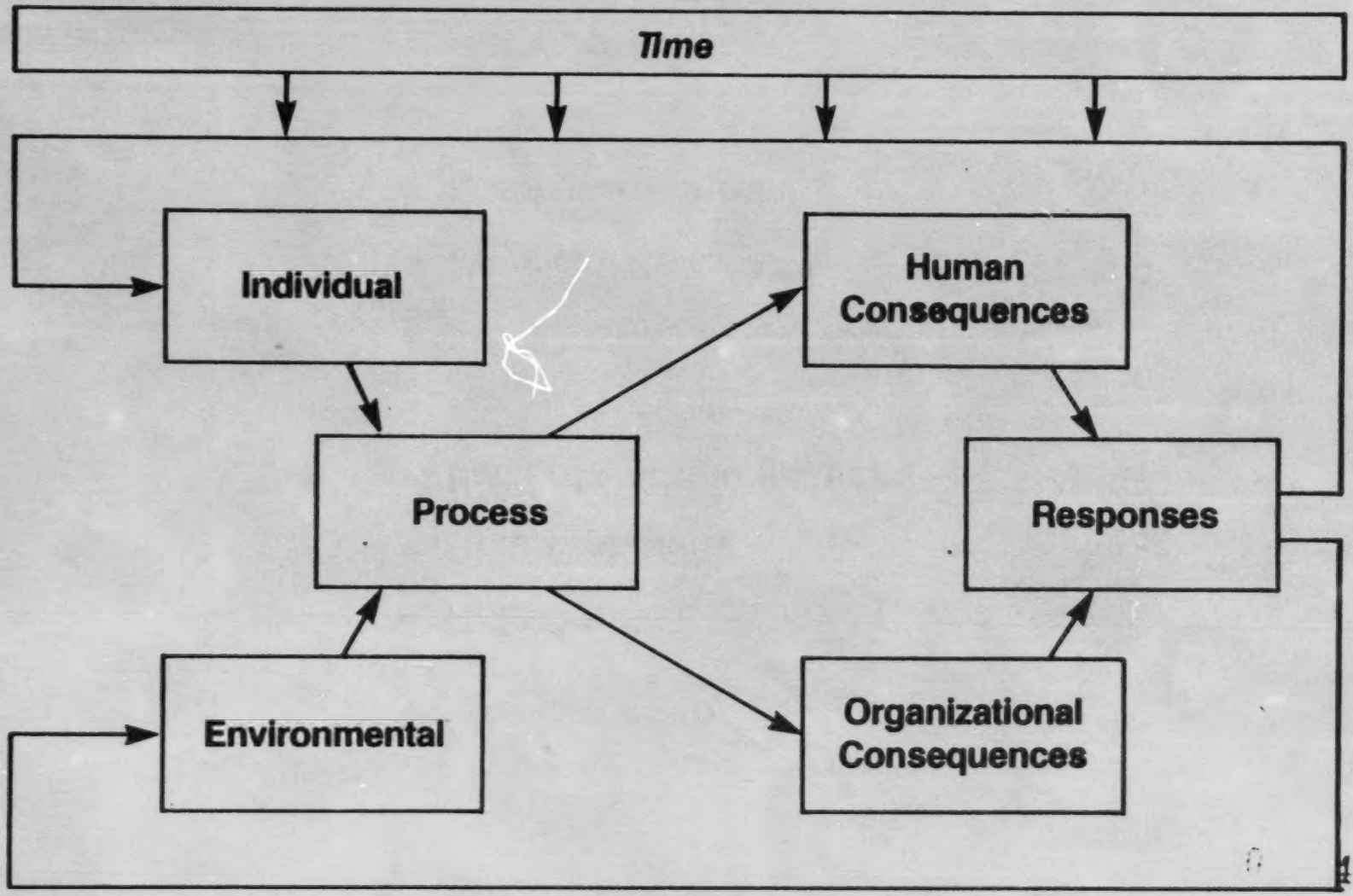
Workshop Objectives

1. To understand the cycle and stages of stress
2. To identify stress points in the prison
3. To design policies, procedures, practices for managing stress.
4. To develop a stress management plan.

Prison Stressors

- Role Conflict
- Role Ambiguity
- Lack of Communication
- Racial Problems
- Inmate Grievances
- Physical Threat
- Loss of Autonomy

Organizational Stress: A General Model



Session 2

DAY I

2:00 - 3:00 p.m.

STRESS IN CORRECTIONS: PERSONAL AND ORGANIZATIONAL

Goal

- Participants will understand the stress process for individuals in various organizations, including corrections.

Objectives

Participants will:

- Understand some sources of stress for the individual in corrections and other occupations;
- Understand how the organization may contribute to individual stress.

Synopsis

This session provides participants with a basic understanding of stress as a biologically grounded life process, as it occurs individually and organizationally within the correctional setting. Clinical studies of stress, together with previously identified sources of stress will be used to lend a basic frame of reference to stress for this workshop. The discussion of occupational stress case histories will be a major focus.

"If you knew what was going on inside of you, you'd be bitterly offended."

(Noel Coward, Design for Living)

STRESS IN CORRECTIONS: PERSONAL AND ORGANIZATIONAL

I. Viewpoint

II. Stress Definitions

III. Perspectives for Studying Stress

IV. Data from a Clinical Study

V. Conclusions

VI. Stress in Corrections

VII. Costs of Work Stress - Why is it a problem?

VIII. Why we do so little about it

IX. What can we do about work stress

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

STRESS IN CORRECTIONS: PERSONAL AND ORGANIZATIONAL

The word "stress" is one with which we are all familiar; the concept of what stress is, however, is probably different for all of us. The meaning of stress has been taken apart and made complex, given unlimited variations, mass produced in the media; books have showered down upon us, and yet after reading most of the relevant research on this topic the only thing about which we are sure of is that each of us responds to stressful situations in different ways. The study of stress must be regarded as interdisciplinary since it involves medicine, psychiatry, physiology, psychology, sociology, and anthropology.

The biggest killers, not just of law enforcement personnel, but of everybody today, are stress related diseases. As Jack McCall, Ph.D. (Director of Human Services, Division of Prisons, N.C.) points out in his workshops on stress, infectious diseases used to be the killers, now it is stress related diseases such as coronary heart disease, ulcers, hypertension, colitis.

The following are examples of stressors in corrections as documented by Dr. Frances Cheek, New Jersey Department of Corrections and others:

(Important to note that these are <u>not</u> the <u>results</u> of, or signs of stress, but the <u>causes</u> of stress).

Lack of communication

Job insecurity

Lack of recognition

Lack of input

Public and political influences

Racial problems

Lack of cooperation

Unclear policy and procedure

Role ambiguity

Procedural changes (environmental)

Legal restraints

Inmate grievances

Assignment patterns

Physical threat

Loss of autonomy, etc. ....

Stress is a constant of the human condition. It predates conception. A variety of chemicals, radiation, and genetic transfers from parents affects both sperm and ovum. Stress is present at the instant of fertilization and evolvement of the embryo and fetus through labor and birth.

Stress concerns the body's attempt to maintain internal equilibrium. However, stress is necessary, disequilibrium is necessary, to maintain our life processes from the molecular to coordination of all life processes levels. The

basic exchange of oxygen across alveolar membranes in the lungs or cell membranes cannot occur without disequilibrium on each side of the membrane. Improvement in efficiency of cardiac muscle cannot occur without planned stress on the heart and lungs through exercise. Maintenance of hydraulic pressure in the eye requires constant adjustments of both fluid and pH levels on both sides of the lens.

Similarly, as we mature, nonchemical/physical stress impacts us in recognizable and unrecognizable ways, both positively and negatively. These external stressors include family, friends, school, workplace, and other interactive persons and organizations. Our constant interaction with them creates psychological, physical, and behavioral consequences.

These are:

a. Psychological health consequences, e.g.

- anxiety, tension
- depression
- dissatisfaction, boredom
- somatic complaints
- psychological fatigue
- feelings of futility, inadequacy, low self-esteem
- feelings of alienation
- psychoses
- anger
- repression, suppression of feelings and ideas
- loss of concentration

b. Physical health consequences, e.g.

- cardiovascular disease
- gastrointestinal disorders
- respiratory problems
- cancer
- arthritis
- headaches
- bodily injuries
- skin disorders
- physical/physiological fatigue or strain
- death

c. Behavioral consequences

- dispensary visits
- drug use and abuse (including alcohol, caffeine, nicotine)
- over- or under-eating
- nervous gesturing, pacing
- risky behavior (e.g., reckless driving, gambling)
- aggression
- vandalism
- stealing
- poor interpersonal relations (with friends, family, co-workers)
- suicide or attempted suicide

"Psychophysiological stress resides neither in the situation nor in the person; it depends on a transaction between the two. It arises from how the person appraises an event and adapts to it. Stress is what occurs when the demands of the environment, in the person's eyes, clearly exceed the resources of the person to handle them." (Richard Lazarus, 1979).

Another definition, and there are many to choose from, comes from Hans Selye, "Stress is the wear and tear within the body in response to the life process." One adapts to a problem irrespective of what that problem may be, even the normal problems encountered in day-to-day living. The nonspecific demand for activity as such is the essence of stress. Stress is not to be avoided, nor is it always damaging. Its cause may be pleasant or unpleasant. The effects of stress depend on the intensity of the demand made upon the body's adaptive capacity. Jack McCall gives us an example. Let's suppose that two inmates are fighting in the yard, you go running over and as you do your whole body changes. Your body goes through what is called an emergency reaction. This reaction was best explained by Hans Selye (1939) as the G.A.S. or the General Adaptation Syndrome. He found that the body has three levels of defense. In the first stage, which is termed the alarm-reaction, the body's defense forces are quickly called up by pituitary-adrenal secretions, producing an increase in heart rate, blood sugar, and muscle tone, as well as general alertness. In the resistance stage, further reactions take place that enable the individual to repair damage and sustain continued stress. In the final stage of exhaustion, the hormone defenses and protective reactions break down, and further exposure to stress may lead to disintegration or death. Selye (1956) believes that many of the human "diseases of adaptation," including hypertension, arthritis, and peptic ulcer, are due to the excessive use of the body's defense system during long-continued stress. The general adaptation syndrome suggests a parallel between psychological and biological defenses, and this has been tested in the lab on animals as well as human subjects.

As the correctional officer in the yard runs over to stop that fight, his body is going through the first two stages mentioned above. He is prepared to either fight or flee. "The hard thing about being a correctional officer is your body gets ready to fight or flee and you are not able to do either." What happens time after time, when you do that, you run the risk of the last stage, the stage of exhaustion and that's when the most damage can occur. The physical and psychological symptoms are numerous.

Paul Hansen (1977) presented a simplified summary of the stress response of the body: we will present this physical response without the medical terminology:

1. The stressor is perceived, internally or externally.
2. Message is relayed to the brain.
3. Autonomic nervous system turns on the adrenalin flow.
4. Metabolism is stimulated.
5. If the intense bodily activity producing energy is not used up, long-term stress effects on the body will be damaging.

6. The body is thrown out of balance, causing further defenselessness of the body to be immune to disease.

7. If the individual does not fight or flee, the brain interprets that as a message that there has been insufficient preparation and accelerates the stress response.

8. Over time, pain and distress occur (headaches, stomach aches, upsets, diarrhea, heart pains, sweating, elevated blood pressure, eventual disease and damage to vital organs.

We have not yet answered the question, why is it that some peoples' stress are others' adaptations (non-stress)? What is stressful for some, is not for others. How we perceive the situation and what we have learned about the right and wrong way to react to situations and other peoples' actions are very important, if we are to understand the concept of adaptation. Although this will be discussed elsewhere, some of the models in which people adapt for themselves will be mentioned here.

In the "executive monkey experiment," one monkey was placed in a position of having to be responsible for yet another monkey, in which an electric shock was generated at intervals. The executive monkey was to pull a switch to turn off the flow of electricity to both the monkey it was responsible for and itself. In the end of the experiment the monkey who had executive responsibility died of stress induced causes and the other lived. This is mentioned in direct respect to the correctional officer's role as a caretaker, one who is charged with responsibility for other human beings, for protection, food, shelter, etc. In Robert Kahn's studies (1978), research indicates that responsibility, overload, role conflict, personal problems, organizational difficulties, and 'incompatibility of job demands tends to cause a high degree of stress where the job holders had the responsibility simultaneously with some people inside the organization (supervisors and co-workers) and some outside the organization (inmates and family).' How is the individual to react to the individually oriented stress, fear of failing in the job; interpersonally oriented stress, inadequate support in the situation perceived; and the organizationally oriented stress, unclear job requirements, etc.

The Stress Response Cycle

As an individual perceives a particular situation in his/her environment, an interesting filtering process occurs. The individual's own feelings, attitudes, behaviors, and beliefs about the situation come into play. These filters assess the situation and a specific response to it is the result, that is then perceived by other individuals who go through the same process internally. This generates a kind of feedback from one individual's perception, which in turn is processed by others, in which the behaviors exhibited are seen as either adaptive or maladaptive depending on the viewer's frame of reference.

How we all teach our children to handle themselves in situations is a good example to view the process of how feelings, attitudes, and behaviors are taught to people. You have probably told your children or some other significant individual to or not to feel a certain way in certain situations. They in turn had to repress their real feelings in order to accommodate the authority figure. The particular attitudes you have displayed, as a model, in front

of your children have for the most part been absorbed by them also. They have seen your behavior patterns in times of crisis, not getting what you want, or when you've been angry or blaming. How you have reacted to various kinds of situations and the feelings, attitudes, and behaviors that were displayed taught your kids as you were taught by your parents how not to be and how to be. These ways of "being" are in a sense coping skills that we develop in order to meet our needs. When these needs are not met we have a choice, we either adapt appropriately or inappropriately. The appropriateness of our actions are judged by our peers, the organization, the inmates, our families.

Below is a list of the feelings a person under stress might have.

- A felt loss of the ability to be an effective helper or leader
- Chronic feelings of anxiety or dread before going to work
- Feeling exhausted or overtired, even when getting plenty of rest
- Getting angry or irritated easily
- Sleeplessness and night worry
- Feeling sick, trouble taking care of yourself.

Behaviors, the reactions to stress we can see, are really distancing mechanisms. Some are healthy when used in moderation and act to reduce the amount of personal stress between the recipient and worker by helping the worker to:

1. View relationship with the other person in objective and analytical terms
2. Reduce the intensity and scope of the experienced emotional arousal
3. Distance himself while still maintaining a genuine concern for the individual's well being

However, these healthy behaviors when carried to an extreme are like a form of psychological protection which have become malignant. Another important aspect of these behaviors is that they become rigid and stereotypic as the person's experienced level of stress rises. Furthermore, some of these behavioral techniques preclude any continued caring, and can lead to the total emotional detachment and dehumanization found in individuals suffering from burnout.

Some of these behaviors are:

- Acting blase or uncaring about the recipient's problems and sufferings
- Categorizing people without considering their individual needs
- Labeling
- Intellectualizing - objectifying, denying personal feelings as a result

- Excessive use of sick humor
- Psychological, physical distancing or withdrawal: avoiding tasks, poor performance
- Rigidly applying rules, too exhausted to be creative
- Extreme compartmentalization between work and private life
- Expressing negative attitude in general (projecting your sense of being overwhelmed)
- Excessive absenteeism.

Attitudes are found in a lesser or greater degree in all of us and are activated in different times and different situations. However, during times of great stress attitudes (just as we have seen with feelings and behaviors) become rigid, stereotypic, and limited. When these attitudes, styles of functioning, are taken to extremes they can cause great stress. You may see them to some degree in your behavior now, when taken to a stressful situation they may be experienced as humanly impossible.

- Driving forces: Try hard, please others, work hard, be perfect, be strong - all the time, without regard to reality they kill
- Anxious - over-controller: "I'm the only one who can do things right around here"
- Quiet compensator: "... with an unhappy personal life ... I will lose myself in my work"
- Rigid reformer: "... I'm a dreamer and I'm going to realize it no matter what happens ... (to the other person)
- Enthusiastic novice: "... takes on too much, too long, too intensely ..."
- Ambivalent individual: "... I know something is wrong somewhere ... but I don't know where .... Am I here to help people or just control them ..."
- Bossy individual: "... I know whats best for my clients ... people in distress are too upset to make any important decisions .... Most people don't know what's best for them anyway."

The situations that produce stress may be divided into the following four types: (this should not be seen as an exhaustive list, but rather a model in which to view situational analysis, R.M. Goldenson, Ph.D., 1970).

Deprivations, frustrations, conflicts, and pressures. Each of these may arise from either internal or external sources, as indicated in the following brief descriptions:

Deprivation: social deprivation - isolation
sensory " - lack of outside stimulation
recognition " - lack of social and personal ego fulfillment

i.e., such as a correctional officer being assigned to the same duty station, with same job function, same people, day-in-day-out. Raising the insensitivity to his/her relationship to the position he/she has.

Frustration: Deprivation and frustration frequently overlap, but the emphasis in frustration is on obstacles that thwart our drives or impede our progress toward a goal. Major sources of external frustration include:

accidents	discrimination
storms	rules and regulations
social situations	too many bosses

Internal frustrations:

awkwardness	excessive inhibition
insufficient skills	fatigue
lack motivation	doubting one's self excessively

Conflict: Conflicting needs and goals also put us under a special strain, we frequently find it difficult to make decisions and choices, especially when we have to forego one desirable alternative for another, or when we create a double bind for ourselves, such as, when there's work-you want to play and vice versa.

approach-avoidance conflicts:	double binds
double-approach conflicts:	goals equally desirable
double-avoidance conflicts:	objection to all alternatives

Pressures: Internal pressures like taking on the responsibilities of others, or for others; seeking goals that (we) cannot achieve; feelings of failure and disappointment in ourselves. External pressures like trying to meet the demands of others when they are unrealistic given our situation; forced decision, decisions, decisions; competition from co-workers.

Deprivations, frustrations, conflicts, and pressures exert varying amounts of stress and strain on our adjustive capacities.

With regard to the physical or physiological correlates of job related stress, the research literature has focused primarily on those correlates relating to the cardiovascular system. Research that utilizes heart attacks as the physical consequences is typically conducted retrospectively due to the relative infrequency of heart attacks among the population as a whole. Either a large sample and/or a long time frame would be required in order for enough people to have heart attacks to use inferential statistics effectively in a predictive study.

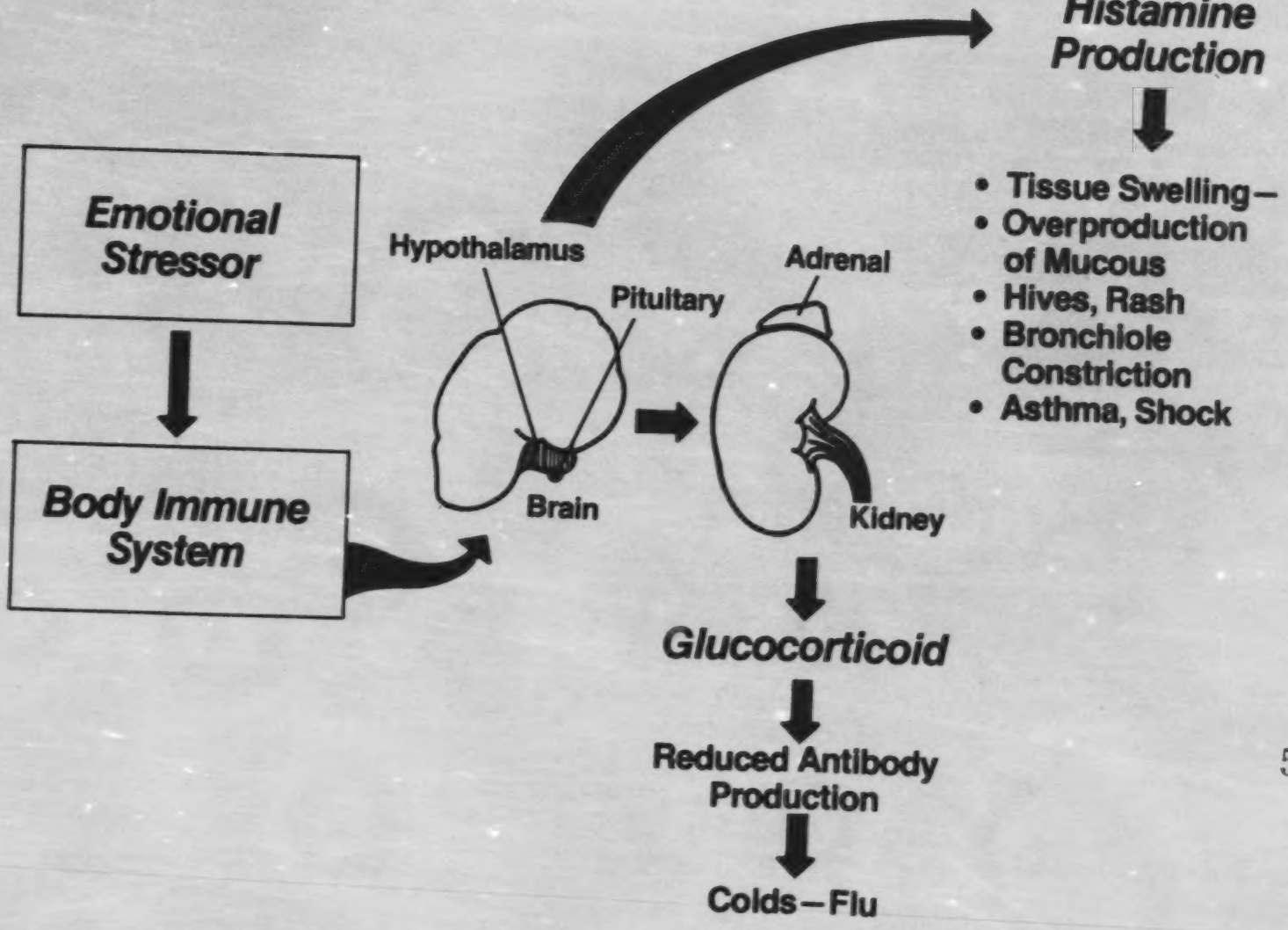
Most job stress-heart attack research has been concerned with "risk factors" rather than heart attacks themselves. This is largely due to the fact that the rate of heart attacks among any employee sample of practical size is too low to permit efficient study in any but relatively poor retrospective designs. Risk factors are generally factors that medical researchers have identified as contributors to coronary heart disease. To date, the following risk factors have been related to some type of job stressor - blood pressure, cholesterol level, pulse rate, and electrocardiogram abnormalities.

However, stress reactions appear in all organs and systems, as the following chart illustrates:

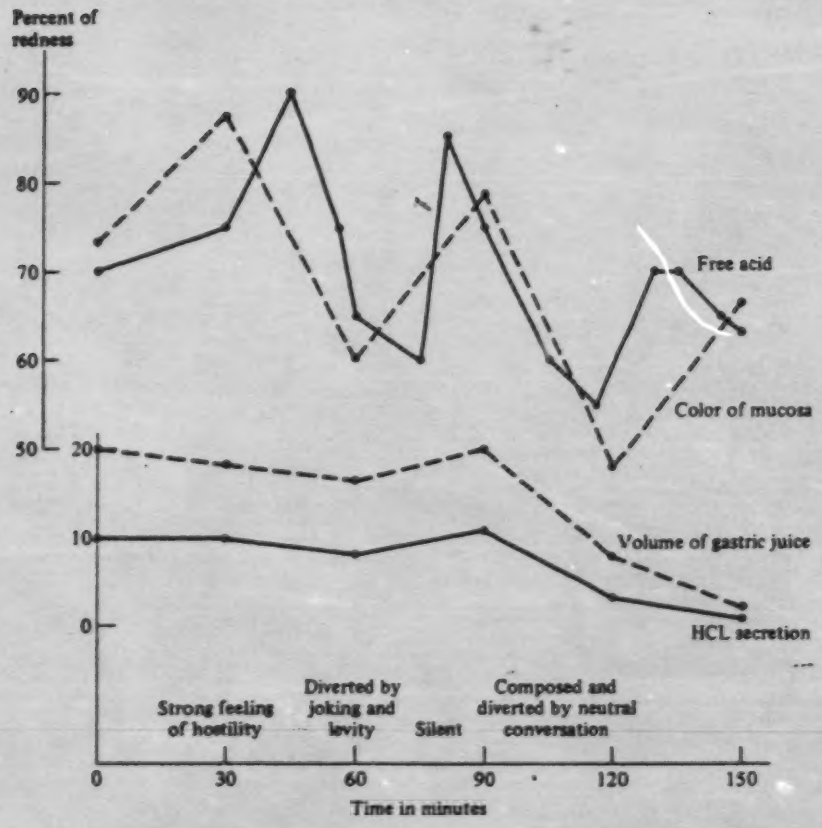
PHYSIOLOGICAL STRESS REACTIONS

ORGAN/SYSTEM	SOME PHYSIOLOGICAL STRESS REACTIONS
CARDIOVASCULAR	• INCREASED DIASTOLIC/SYSTOLIC PRESSURE • INCREASED PULSE RATE • VASOCONSTRICTION • IRREGULAR HEART BEAT • EKG ABNORMALITIES
PULMONARY	• INCREASED RESPIRATORY RATE • BRONCHIOLE CONSTRICTION • ASTHMA • HYPERVENTILATION
DIGESTIVE	• HYPERGASTRICITY • DUODENAL ULCER • PEPTIC ULCER • HIATAL ULCER • LOSS OF APPETITE • INCREASED CHOLESTEROL LEVELS • HYPO, HYPERGLYCEMIA • SIGNIFICANT WEIGHT GAIN/LOSS • CONSTIPATION • DIARRHEA
NERVOUS	• REDUCED REACTION TIME • FACIAL TICS • MIGRAINE HEADACHES • IMPOTENCE • BACKACHES • TREMORS • MASS PSYCHOGENIC ILLNESS • "CRYING JAGS" • DEPRESSION • DRUG DEPENDENCE
ENDOCRINE	• RHEUMATOID ARTHRITIS • INVOLUNTARY SWEATING (PALMAR, etc.) • DERMATITIS • ALLERGIES • ULCERATIVE COLITIS

Infection-Allergy Stress Syndrome



The dynamics of psychosomatic reaction



Stress Response

1. Stressor Perceived
2. Message Relayed
3. Adrenalin Increased
4. Metabolism Accelerated
5. Bodily Activity Intensified
6. Immunity Diminished
7. Response Accelerated
8. Pain, Distress, Disease

Conditions Precipitating Long-Term Stress

1. With Inmates:

- Uncontrolled and uncontrollable inmates
- Harassment
- Threat of violence against officers
- Unexpected experience of violence
- Inability to retaliate or punish in kind

Conditions Precipitating Long-Term Stress

2. With Co-Workers:

- Competition for choice slots/assignments
- Normal personality clashes
- Paranoid problems--fear of not being backed up/protected by co-workers
- Fear of inmates plotting against them
- Belief they are being excluded

Conditions Precipitating Long-Term Stress

3. With Superiors:

- Favoritism
- Claims of harassment
- Pressure to perform better/differently
- Criticism
- Pressure to resign/transfer
- Low to high contact with prisoners
- No backing when attacked or goaded by inmates
- Public problems—visitors, press, protesters, parents

Stress Components

- Feelings
- Attitudes
- Behavior
- Situations

Feelings

- Loss of Effectiveness
- Anxiety
- Exhaustion
- Irritation
- Sleeplessness
- Illness

Attitudes

- Perfectionist; Compulsive
- Excessive Controller
- Quiet Compensator
- Rigid Reformer
- Enthusiastic Novice
- Ambivalent
- Bossy

Behaviors

- Uncaring
- Categorizing
- Labelling
- Objectifying
- Sick Humor
- Withdrawal
- Rigidity
- Absenteeism

Situations

- Deprivation
- Frustration
- Conflict
- Pressures

Session 3

DAY I

3:15 - 4:30 p.m.

STATE TEAM STRESS IDENTIFICATION: TEAM MEETING I

Goal

- Participants will identify and develop a priority list of major sources of stress and consequences for their state's institution or system.

Objectives

Participants will:

- Identify major sources of stress in the correctional environment
- Identify major consequences of stress in the correctional environment.

Synopsis

This unit facilitates each state group in the identification of major sources of stress for the organization.

Identification of stress in corrections

You have now had the opportunity to hear about and discuss stress factors in correctional work.

1. Each individual should first personally identify sources of stress, e.g., low morale, rate, and amend the list from his/her job perspective. (15 min)

2. The state planning group should then generate a list of the top five stressors as rated by the group by reviewing and scoring the entire list. (30 min)

3. Write the "top five" sources of stress on a flip chart for sharing with other states.

4. Towards the end of the session, turn to your larger subgroup of states to compare and discuss lists.

Rating: 3 = very important 2 = important 1 = not important

LIST SOURCES OF STRESS

(1-3) Rating

Self	Group

Session 4

DAY I

4:30 - 5:30 p.m.

ORGANIZATIONAL STRESS IN CORRECTIONS

Goal

- Participants will understand the stress process as a real, dynamic, developmental process that takes place in individuals, affects organizations and is affected by them, and has unique aspects in corrections.

Objectives

Participants will:

- Understand how stress on individuals may affect the organization
- Understand how organization may produce stress on individuals
- Recognize unique aspects in corrections that may produce stress on individuals and organizations.

Synopsis

This session provides participants with an understanding of organizational stress as it manifests itself in correctional institutions. This session will illustrate the stress process and responses to stress. The seven aspects of a model (i.e., the environmental, individual, process, human consequences, organizational consequences, response, and time) are discussed in this session.

ORGANIZATIONAL STRESS: AN INTERACTIONAL PROCESS

In the last session four components of the stress response cycle were presented - i.e., feelings, attitudes, situations, and behavior. In this session, these four factors will be incorporated into a broader framework or model for viewing both individual and organizational stress which is adapted from the model of organizational stress set forth by Beehr and Newman (1978). This model provides a more complete description of the manner in which the individual and organizational stress processes evolve. In additon, the model takes into account the interaction of personal and organizational stress response systems.

This model is comprised of the following seven aspects:

- Environmental
- Individual
- Process
- Human Consequences
- Organizational Consequences
- Adaptive Responses
- Time

A discussion of the manner in which these seven aspects interact to form a general model of organizational stress is presented below, along with operational definitions and illustrations of each facet.

Environmental

The first step in this process is the interaction of the environmental and individual facets. Beehr and Newman (1978:677) state that the environmental facet "includes any aspect of the (objective) environment that is perceived as stressful by the employee, and responded to accordingly, or sensed by the human organism and responded to (e.g., physiologically) without the employee being cognitively aware of the cause." Characteristics of the organization, the task, the work role, and situational factors mentioned in session two, are all included in this facet.

ENVIRONMENTAL FACET

a. job demands and task characteristics

- weekly work schedule*
- over- and under-utilization of skills*
- variance in workload
- pace of work
- responsibility (for people or for things)

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*Facet elements that have been studied empirically within the context of job stress--employee health (at least to some extent).

- travel as part of the job
- job characteristics thought to be intrinsically motivating

b. role demands or expectations

- role overload*
- role conflict*
- role ambiguity
- formal and informal relationships among role set members
- psychological contract perceived by the employee

c. organizational characteristics and conditions

- company size*
- job security
- hours of work (both total and time of day)
- duration of work tasks
- socio-technical changes
- organizational structure (and job's position within hierarchy)
- communication system (and job's position within system)
- subsystem relations
- staffing policies and procedures
- management style (philosophical and operational)
- evaluation, control, and reward systems
- training programs
- organizational climate
- opportunity for advancement
- required relocation
- local union constraints

d. organization's external demands and conditions

- route to and from work
- number and nature of customers or clients
- national or international unions
- governmental laws and regulations
- suppliers; providers of needed services
- weather
- technological and scientific developments
- consumer movements
- geographic location of organization

The majority of the studies on the environmental facet have concerned themselves with social-psychological and organizational characteristics of the work environment rather than on the physical work environment. Only a small number of studies have measured job/environmental stressors in an objective way and a smaller number have studied the relationship between objectively measured environmental stressors and employee perceptions of them. Certain environmental stressors have been related to some individual health consequences.

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*Facet elements that have been studied empirically within the context of job stress--employee health (at least to some extent).

The environmental stressors that have been found to be the most significantly correlated with personal health (including stress) are: overload, e.g., phone calls, office units, and meetings); the arrangement of working hours throughout the week; company size; jobs that did not allow enough rest; and jobs that required very little physical activity.

Individual

The individual (personal) facet is "any characteristic of the human being that influences an individual's perception of stressful events, interpretation of events as stressful, and/or reaction to stress." An individual's feelings and attitudes (two of the factors discussed in the previous session) are two elements of this facet.

INDIVIDUAL (PERSONAL) FACET

a. psychological condition (personality traits and behavioral characteristics)

- Type A*
- ego needs*
- need for clarity/intolerance of ambiguity*
- introversion/extroversion
- internal/externality
- approval seeking
- defensiveness
- impatience
- intrapersonal conflicts (e.g., between ego-ideal and reality)
- self-esteem
- motives/goals/aspirations (career, life)
- typical anxiety level
- perceptual style
- values (human, religious, etc.); personal work standards
- need for perfection
- intelligence
- abilities (especially task- and coping-related)
- previous experience with stress
- satisfaction with job and other major aspects of life

b. physical condition

- physical fitness*/health
- diet and eating habits
- exercise, work, sleep, and relaxation patterns

c. life-stage characteristics

- human development stages
- career stages

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*Facet elements that have been studied empirically within the context of job stress--employee health (at least to some extent).

d. demographics

- age*
- education (amount and type)*
- sex
- race
- socio-economic status
- occupation, avocation

Beehr and Newman (1978:679) note that many personal characteristics which comprise the individual facet have never been studied. Of those individual traits that have been examined, four have received the most attention - i.e., age, ability, personality/needs, and physical condition. Considering age as a predictor of stress, researchers have found that groups of employees with high scores on a measure of "discord" and on a life-changes scale had higher blood pressure than other groups. This observation was more striking for employees age 41-56 than employees age 56-65. Physical condition is a logical predictor of illness and perhaps of stress as well. One study reports that men in good physical condition and nonsmokers are able to maintain a low heart rate during the normal stresses of the workday, whereas stress is more likely to increase the heart rate of other people. The research findings with respect to the relationships between individual ability and stress and personality/needs and stress are less conclusive and often inconsistent. Therefore no definite statements about the nature of these relationships will be made at this time.

Process

The mechanism by which the personal and environmental facets come together and interact is the process facet, "which refers to those events within the human organism which transform input (stimuli) and produce output (human and organizational consequences and responses). Both physical and psychological processes are included."

PROCESS FACET

a. psychological processes

- perceptions* (of past, present, and predicted future situations)
- evaluation of situation
- response selection
- response execution

b. physical processes*

- physiological, biological
- neurological
- chemical

The physical processes include any physical, physiological, chemical, or neurological events in an individual that intervene between a person's contact

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*Facet elements that have been studied empirically within the context of job stress--employee health (at least to some extent).

with the stressful environmental stimulus and the final organizational or human consequence. Selye maintains that there are "first mediators" of stress, which transmit the stress signal to the organs affected in the stress process. He suggests that they could operate either via the nervous system or the blood stream, while the specific chemical nature of this agent is yet unknown (Seyle, 1975). Mason (1975) suggests that the "first mediator" may be the emotional arousal that accompanies many stressful situations, which indicates that the nervous system may play an important role. Other researchers, including Seyle, assert that the "first mediators" are probably different according to the nature of the stressful event - leaving the controversy unresolved (Beehr and Newman, 1978:681-682).

Psychological processes include the following activities: perception of the situation, appraisal of the situation, decision-making regarding an appropriate response, and perception of the outcomes of one's responses.

For the most part, the elements of the process facet are the least explored and uncertain elements of all of the seven facets. The research domain concerning the psychological processes is an area where industrial/organizational psychologists could make a significant contribution. There are a variety of approaches within the fields of cognitive and social psychology that appear to be well-suited for the study of these psychological processes (e.g., subject areas concerning motivation, learning, perception, and decision-making).

Human Consequences

The human consequences facet, which is one output of the interaction of the individual and environmental facets, is defined in the following manner:

> "The human consequences facet consists of health-related conditions that are primarily important to the individual and less important to the organization .... The human consequences of stress may be divided into three categories: physical or psychological, and behavioral."

HUMAN CONSEQUENCES FACET

a. psychological health consequences

- anxiety, tension*
- depression*
- dissatisfaction, boredom*
- somatic complaints*
- psychological fatigue*
- feelings of futility, inadequacy, low self-esteem*
- feelings of alienation
- psychoses
- anger

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*Facet elements that have been studied empirically within the context of job stress--employee health (at least to some extent).

- repression, suppression of feelings and ideas
- loss of concentration

b. physical health consequences

- cardiovascular disease*
- gastrointestinal disorders*
- respiratory problems
- cancer
- arthritis
- headaches
- bodily injuries
- skin disorders
- physical/physiological fatigue or strain
- death

c. behavioral consequences

- dispensary visits*
- drug use and abuse (including alcohol, caffeine, nicotine)*
- over- or under-eating
- nervous gesturing, pacing
- risky behavior (e.g., reckless driving, gambling)
- vandalism
- stealing
- poor interpersonal relations (with friends, family, co-workers)
- suicide or attempted suicide

With regards to the physical or physiological correlates of job stressors, the research literature has focused primarily on those correlates relating to the cardiovascular system. Research that utilizes heart attacks as the physical consequences is typically conducted retrospectively due to the relative infrequency of heart attacks among the population as a whole. Either a large sample and/or a long time frame would be required in order for enough people to have heart attacks to use inferential statistics effectively in a predictive study.

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Studies of the psychological processes concerning human consequences of stress have focused their attention on investigating the relationship between

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*Facet elements that have been studied empirically within the context of job stress--employee health (at least to some extent).

employees' psychological well-being and job stressors via paper and pencil, self-report measures.

Job stress researchers using psychological health measures have used numerous labels for the psychological health variables. A category comprising general measures of poor mental health would include neuroticism, depression, tension, anxiety, and irritation. Several studies indicate that perceived job stressors are related to one or more of these.

Organizational Consequences

In order to explain the organizational stress process it is necessary to trace the interactional sequence of the facets discussed above. Once the environmental and individual facets have interacted via the process facet to produce the human consequences facet, the organizational consequences facet must be taken into account. This facet refers to "consequences of stress in which the organization presumably has more direct interest than the involved individual employee which are primarily those (e.g., an employee's job performance) presumed to be linked directly with the organization's effectiveness." Workers' job performance, employee suggestions, employee withdrawal, and low productivity are all examples of organizational consequences.

ORGANIZATIONAL CONSEQUENCES FACET

- changes in quantity, quality of job performance*
- increase or decrease in withdrawal behaviors (absenteeism, turnover, early retirement)*
- changes in profits, sales, earnings
- changes in ability to recruit and retain quality employees
- changes in ability to obtain raw materials
- increase or decrease in control over environment
- changes in innovation and creativity
- changes in quality of work life
- increase or decrease in employee strikes
- changes in level of influence of supervisors
- grievances

This facet of the model has been the focus of very little inquiry within the context of job stress research. While many industrial organizational psychologists have studied these consequences, they have not done so in relation to job stress. Of those researchers who have focused on job stress and employee health most have generally ignored the organizational consequences of stress. There is a definite need for both human and organizational consequences to be studied in relationship to the same job stressors in the same study.

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*Facet elements that have been studied empirically within the context of job stress--employee health (at least to some extent).

Responses

Once human and organizational consequences have been produced, various agents undertake the job of adaptation (i.e., decreasing undesirable effects of job stress and/or increasing the beneficial effects). This response facet may, at times, have an impact upon the individual and environmental facets. These responses are most often expressed in the form of various behaviors, are of the four components of the stress response system presented in session two.

RESPONSE FACET

a. adaptive responses by the individual

- meditation
- manage desires, ambitions, drives
- attempts at increased self-understanding
- vicarious stress reduction (audience activities for sports, drama)
- relaxation techniques
- mastery of the environment (including stressors)
- seeking sympathy or social support
- tension release (laughing, crying, attacking)
- leaving the stressful situation (permanently, temporarily)
- adjusting work activities to biorhythms
- seeking medical, psychological, other professional help
- attempts to alter behavioral, personality style
- planning, organizing each day's activities
- use of biofeedback techniques
- reduction of psychological importance of work
- increased religious activity
- quitting drug intake
- find more suitable job
- setting realistic goals
- physical activity
- diet
- getting sufficient rest

b. adaptive responses by the organization

- redesigning jobs
- altering organizational structure
- changes in evaluation, reward systems
- changes in work schedules
- providing feedback to employees aimed at role clarification
- refine selection and placement procedures; include job stress as a validation criterion
- provision of human relations training
- making career paths and promotion criteria clear

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*Facet elements that have been studied empirically within the context of job stress--employee health (at least to some extent).

- communication improvement
- provide health services

c. adaptive responses by third parties

- attention to career guidance by school systems
- alcohol and drug abuse treatment programs
- legislation regarding quality of work life, health care, mandatory retirement
- social support by family and friends

The relevant research concerning the response facet is dealt with in session five, which concerns itself exclusively with adaptive and maladaptive responses. Therefore, a discussion of these studies will not be presented here.

Time

The interaction of these various facets in the general model of organizational stress takes place over time, the last facet of this process.

TIME FACET

- time as a variable in development of stress
- time as a variable in response to stress
- time as a variable in relationships among facets 1-6
- sequential reactions (chain and cyclic)

In research concerning the long-term reaction to stress, Selye's general adaptation syndrome (GAS) has proven to be useful in describing the generalized reaction of the body to a large number of specific stimuli. Laboratory animals have exhibited this generalized reaction to such stresses as near-freezing temperatures, confinement in a small cage, forced muscular work, drugs of various types, and infectious agents. This general reaction is the stage of alarm. If the stress persists long enough, the reactions of the animals changes and they enter the stage of resistance. If the external stress persists unabated for a long enough time period the organism may die. This final stage is called the stage of exhaustion.

Prolonged stress and additive stress are most likely involved in many diseases adaptation. In human beings such diseases are characterized by ulceration in various parts of the digestive track, high blood pressure, heart disease, kidney disease, and rheumatism.

These seven facets interact to form a general model of organizational stress:

A Case Example

An example of the process whereby work stress develops for a correctional officer and elicits reaction to it is provided by Brodsky (1977). For the present purposes, factors relevant to the organizational stress model will be taken from Brodsky's case example to illustrate the interactional processes which occur within the model presented above.

The environmental facet consists of a prison setting in which there is talk of hiring additional women as guards. The personal facet is characterized by a correctional officer, who is a lieutenant, who gets along well with inmates and his co-workers. In addition, he is very conscious of the changes going on about him in the prison. The correctional officer interacts with his environment via the process facet, which results in certain human consequences (facet). In this particular situation the guard becomes very worried over the prospect of more women being utilized as guards. As a result he becomes extremely concerned about the idea that a woman might be called upon to support him in a crisis situation. The organizational consequence (facet) of this man's feelings is low productivity and high absenteeism due to sickness. In this example the correctional officer's adaptive response (facet) is that he starts itching and scratching and subsequently develops severe skin problems because of his emotional state. The adaptive response displayed by the organization in this case was to eventually change their policy with regard to hiring women to serve as guards in that institution. Finally, this entire process takes place over several months, which is accounted for by the time facet.

79

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Individual

- Psychological
- Physical
- Life-Stage
- Demographics

Environment

- Job Demands and Tasks
- Role Expectations
- Organizational Conditions
- External Demands

Process

- Psychological
- Physical

Human Consequences

- Psychological Health
- Physical Health
- Behavior

Organizational Consequences

- Job Performance Loss
- Profits, Sales, Earnings
- Loss of Control
- Lower Quality Work Life
- Grievances

Adaptive Responses

- Individual
  - *–Support*
  - *–Relaxation*
- Organizational
  - *–Work Schedules*
  - *–Health Services*
- Third Party
  - *–Social Support*
  - *–Legislation*

Time

- Long- vs. Short-Term Effects
- Response Time
- Sequential Effects

SCHEDULE

DAY II

9:00 - 9:30 a.m.	Responses to Stress
9:30 - 11:30	Stress Response Identification*
11:30 - 12:00 noon	Strategy Design
12:00 - 1:00 p.m.	Lunch
1:00 - 3:00	Strategy Presentation
3:00 - 3:15	Break
3:15 - 5:00	Strategy Profiles**

*State groups meet
**Small groups meet

Session 5

DAY II

9:00 - 9:30 a.m.

RESPONSES TO STRESS

Goal

- Participants will understand adaptive and maladaptive responses to stress.

Objectives

Participants will:

- Understand maladaptive responses to stress - individual/organizational
- Understand adaptive responses to stress - individual/organizational.

Synopsis

This session identifies various individual and organizational responses to stress. Adaptive (problem-solving) responses to stress are differentiated from maladaptive responses (tend to perpetuate stress), in the overall context of the organization, the stress process, and response patterns.

RESPONSES TO STRESS

Adaptive/Maladaptive Responses to Stress

In their discussion of adaptive responses, Beehr and Newman (1978:675) note that it contains elements which represent a variety of methods for handling stress. They indicate that people can seek to reduce or eliminate the undesirable effects of stress in such a way that results in long-term health for the individual and organization. The stressee has various psychological and behavioral coping mechanisms from which to choose an adaptive response to stress. The organizational response, for example, may be to redesign jobs or give special benefits such as earned time off for those employees whose stressful jobs cannot be redesigned. Also included in this facet are the adaptive responses by parties outside of the organization (e.g., governmental responses in terms of legislation regarding the quality of work life generated by the employment situation, psychological support provided by spouse). In a more recent article, Newman and Beehr (1979:2) give a more specific definition of an adaptive response to job stress -- i.e., "a response intended to eliminate, ameliorate, or change the stress producing factors in the job context or intended to modify, in a beneficial way, the individual's reaction to stressful job situations."

Newman and Beehr identify three sources of adaptive responses to job stress:

(1) the person (stressee/potential stressee),

(2) the person's work organization and/or,

(3) some person or organization outside of the local organization (an outsider).

The principal target of the adaptive response is generally some aspect of the person (e.g., psychological, physiological, behavioral) and/or some aspect of the organization (e.g., employee relations, supervisory style, job design, organizational structure). The nature of the adaptive response can be characterized as primarily preventive or curative. A more detailed and elaborate discussion of the three initiators of the adaptive response (i.e., the person, organization, or outsider); the targets of the response (i.e., the person and/or organization); and the nature of the response (i.e., curative or preventive) will be presented in session eight. In this session the emphasis is placed upon identifying various individual and organizational responses to stress. Specifically, the primary focus of the remainder of this presentation will be on differentiating between adaptive responses to stress and responses that are maladaptive.

Torrington and Cooper (1977:49) identify the following sources of work stress:

(1) those intrinsic to the job (e.g., too much/too little work, poor physical working conditions, time pressures, etc.);

(2) one's role in the organization (e.g., role conflict/ambiguity, responsibility for people, no participation in decision making, etc.);

(3) career development (e.g., over-promotion, under-promotion, lack of job security, thwarted ambition, etc.);

(4) relations within the organization (e.g., poor relations with boss, poor relations with colleagues and subordinates, difficulties in delegating responsibility, etc.);

(5) being in the organization (e.g., lack of effective consultation, restrictions on behavior, office politics, etc.);

(6) organization interface with outside (e.g., company versus family demands, company versus own interests, etc.); and

(7) the individual (e.g., personality, tolerance for ambiguity, ability to cope with change, motivation, etc.).

With these sources of stress in mind, we will now examine various ways in which the individual and organization may react to them. According to Torrington and Cooper (1977) an adaptive response is "a situation in which the reactions and/or behaviors of the individual or organization deal directly with the stressful situation by producing solutions to it. Thus adaptive responses tackle the basic source(s) of the stress and find at least a temporary if not permanent solution to it. A maladaptive response is: "a situation in which the reactions and/or behaviors of the individual or organization do not deal with the problem - i.e., they avoid it and more often than not aggravate it." (Torrington and Cooper, 1977:46)

Utilizing examples of stressors cited above in the discussion of sources of work stress, typical adaptive and maladaptive responses to each of these stressors are listed below.

Stressor	Adaptive Behavior	Maladaptive Behavior
(Ind) Overworked	Some work delegated	Accepts work overload with result that general performance deteriorates
(Ind) Role ambiguity	Seeks clarification with colleagues	Withdraws from some aspects of work role
(Ind) Underpromotion	Leaves organization for another	Loses confidence and becomes convinced of own inadequacy
(Org) Facility in disrepair	Design repair program	Ignore; deny
(Org) Violent guard/ inmate incidents	Seek source of discontent	Ignore; tighten security only

It should be noted that adaptive responses may include both positively adaptive responses (i.e., problem-solving) and negatively adaptive (i.e., those that are not solution oriented). As the examples above suggest, for our purposes the term "adaptive responses" is utilized to describe only those responses that may be classified as primarily aimed at problem-solving. Since this may be viewed by some as a somewhat arbitrary distinction between what is an adaptive response versus a maladaptive response, it seems appropriate to elaborate upon how this differentiation is made.

There is obviously a value judgment being made when a response to stress is evaluated as either adaptive or maladaptive. A certain response may be adaptive for one person while maladaptive for another. In addition, what is an adaptive response for the individual may be maladaptive for the organization. Therefore, when one is attempting to determine whether or not a particular response is either adaptive or maladaptive for the individual and/or the organization, several factors should be considered.

There should be a determination concerning whether or not it is possible and/or feasible to do something about the problem. For instance, there may be little that can be done to reduce and/or alleviate the stress of individuals who are attempting to cope with a terminal illness. In his comments about the utility of positive denial, Lazarus (1979:48) points out that researchers have found that a valuable initial response to coping with the severity of an incapaciting disease was self denial on the part of the patient. Initially, when such individuals are weak and confused, it is the most difficult period to react realistically. In extreme crisis situations, denial buys preparation time - i.e., it allows people to confront the grim facts at a gradual, manageable pace. Even though traditionally a break with reality is the hallmark of psychosis, Lazarus maintains that illusions may, at times, be useful mechanisms for coping with stress rather than indications of pathology. Lazarus asserts that before one can access the usefulness of such responses to stress a distinction must be made between the types of denials. Lazarus (1979:48) states that:

> "Denial of the facts clears the way for illusion. For example, a person can deny the facts of his illness, but eventually the illusions that denial allows becomes very difficult to sustain. If it's an illness that become progressively worse, the evidence is harder and harder to overlook. To do so resembles a psychotic denial, a disavowal of reality. Such extreme cases of denial can be dangerous, like the man who ran up the stairs to convince himself he wasn't having a heart attack ... that sort of denial is damaging, but in other circumstances it may not be. Illusions can sometimes allow hope, which is healthy."

As the preceding discussion indicates, it is not always easy to determine either whether or not something may be done to solve the stress producing problem or even at what point (if at all) it is helpful to "do something," as opposed to denying the situation. Therefore the task of categorizing responses to stress is often difficult and somewhat ambiguous.

Lazarus makes a useful distinction between two primary modes of coping: (1) problem-solving methods of responding, which we have referred to as adaptive, and (2) emotion-focused methods, which are examples of maladaptive responses expressed by the individual. Emotion-focused methods of responding to stress are cognitive in nature as opposed to efforts to change things. These modes include such things as distancing yourself, minimizing, and thinking of something else.

This differentiation suggests one type of measuring rod which we might utilize in our own assessments of responses to stress. The nature and extent of contribution that a response makes toward solving the stress producing problem is perhaps the most appropriate criteria that we might apply when attempting to identify and understand responses to stress, either at the individual or organizational level.

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Adaptive Sources

- Person
- Work Organization
- Outsider

Adaptive Response

- Dealing Directly with Problem
- Producing Solutions

Maladaptive Response

- Avoidance
- Denial
- Aggravation

Session 6

DAY II

9:30 - 11:30 a.m.

STRESS RESPONSE IDENTIFICATION: TEAM MEETING II

Goal

- Participants (State Team) will construct adaptive responses to stress.

Objectives

Participants will:

- Identify present state organization/institution responses to stress
- Classify responses as adaptive/maladaptive.

Synopsis

This unit facilitates group use of adaptive response criteria to develop creative organizational responses to stress.

STRESS RESPONSE IDENTIFICATION: TEAM MEETING II

Identification of adaptive and maladaptive responses to stress

Coping With Stress

Once an individual as well as an organization experiences stress they will adopt a series of behaviours reacting to it. In most cases these will be adaptive behaviours dealing directly with the stressful situation by producing solutions to it. Typical stressors and adaptive behaviours might be:

Stressor	Adaptive behavior
Overworked	Some work delegated
Not aware of company policy on a particular matter	Finds out what policy is
Poor working relationship with colleague	Confronts issue with colleague and negotiates better relationships
Underpromotion	Leaves organization for another
Company vs. family demands	Takes a holiday
Role ambiguity	Seeks clarification with colleagues or superior

Each of these tackles the basic cause of the stress and solves it, at least temporarily and perhaps permanently.

An alternative set of behaviours are those which are maladaptive in that they do not deal with the problem: they avoid it and probably aggravate it. Typical of this might be:

Stressor	Maladaptive behavior
Overworked	Accepts work overload that results in general performance deteriorates
Not aware of company policy on a particular matter	Guesses incorrectly and performs inappropriately
Poor working relationship with colleague	Attacks colleague indirectly through third party
Underpromotion	Loses confidence and becomes convinced of own inadequacy
Company vs. family demands	Blames company for family discontent
Role ambiguity	Withdraws from some aspects of work role

In all these situations the initiator is always the individual under stress and it is reasonable to suggest that an external intervention is only going to become potentially useful as a way of turning maladaptive behaviours, which harm both the individual and his organization, into adaptive behaviours aiding one or both.

1. Individually list the major five sources of stress and stressor adaptations and maladaptations in your correctional environment both for individual and organizations. (30 min.)

	Adaptive		Maladaptive	
Stressor	Individual	Organization	Individual	Organization
Example: Low salary (Officers)	Second job Seek promotion Quit	Maximize Productive Overtime Seek higher salary levels	Depression Quit	Denial

2. Discuss individual maladaptive and adaptive responses with your colleagues. Do they fit the definition? What are the alternatives?

3. Second, list source of the present maladaptive organizational responses to the top five stressors on a flip chart. Why are they not productive?

Session 7

DAY II

11:30 - 12:00 noon

STRATEGY DESIGN

Goal

- Participants will be able to analyze and evaluate various strategies for stress management.

Objectives

Participants will:

- Summarize the categories of organizational strategies for stress management
- Understand the process of strategy development for organizations.

Synopsis

In this session various strategic points for stress management which differentiate responses to stress are identified (e.g., source of response; target of response, etc.). Managerial functions within the scope of corrections are discussed, along with examples of organizational strategies which can be incorporated in various types of programs within correctional settings. A strategy profile is presented which is viewed as a tool to be used by correctional personnel in identifying priorities for organizational intervention for stress management programs.

STRATEGY DESIGN

Before discussing methods of strategy development for the management of stress in correctional institutions, four strategic points for management will be set forth. Each of these categorizations uses a different way to differentiate responses to stress.

(1) It was pointed out in session five that Newman and Beehr (1979:2) identify the following three sources of adaptive responses to job stress:

(a) the person (stressor/potential stressee),

(b) the person's work organization and/or,

(c) some person or organization outside of the local organization (an outsider).

The source of work stress, can be a person and/or an organization (which was noted above) that causes a stressful reaction within the individual and/or a stressful situation within the work environment. Therefore, the identification of the initiator or origin of the job stress is one means of differentiating responses.

(2) Newman and Beehr (1979:2) use another method of categorizing responses to stress. They note that reactions to stress may also be classified according to their target. Two targets of responses are identified:

(a) the employee,

(b) some aspect of the organization.

The target(s) of strategies to handle stress is that person(s) and/or work organization that is experiencing stress and/or its effects (e.g., low productivity, absenteeism, etc.) and is the focus of the response. For instance, the majority of the organizational strategies for dealing with job stress are directed first toward changing some aspect of the work organization (e.g., policies, processes, structures, job designs, roles, tasks, etc.)

(3) We can also identify two forms of intervention strategies that are used by management units within an organization to handle stress: operational and influential (Torrington and Cooper 1977:49).

(a) Operational Strategies are those strategies modifying existing personnel operations to take account of their potential for stress mitigation. Examples of these strategies are training, the professional counselor, and performance review.

(b) Influential Strategies refer to the potential for stress mitigation second-hand, through the influence of personnel specialists on overall management philosophy and policy. Some examples of these more indirect methods of stress management are revising grievance procedures, and examining selection and promotion criteria.

(4) Newman and Beehr (1979:3) maintain that a strategy for handling job stress can be either primarily preventive or curative in nature. Preventive strategies attack potential sources and/or situations that are likely to produce job stress. Curative strategies, on the other hand, attempt to ameliorate existing stressful conditions both within the individual and the organization.

Intervention Points

The major intervention points in a state correctional organization that can affect change to manage stress are:

- Administration
- Management
- Mid-Management
- Line Officers
- Health/Mental Health
- Training
- Personnel
- Legislative
- Planning/Budget
- Other

Administration refers to a centralized corrections organization administrator and staff performing "central office" functions such as planning, budgeting, and program development.

Management denotes operational managers and staff such as wardens, superintendents, and institutionally focused top-level management staff.

Mid-Management here refers to mid-level management within an institution, such as captains or division supervisors.

Line Officers refers to line correctional officer staff.

Health/Mental Health staff refers to physicans, nurses, psychiatrists, social workers, psychologists, etc.

Training staff refers to either centralized statewide training or institutional personnel training staff.

Personnel staff refers to either centralized statewide personnel staff or to personnel staff at the institutional level.

Legislative here refers to state legislative personnel involved in corrections policy-making.

Planning/Budget denotes central office or institutional staff assigned to program and fiscal control.

Other refers to management and staff categories not included above.

Each of these functions can have a role to play in the management of stress in correctional institutions.

Organizational Responses Strategies - A Typology of Objectives

Administrative

Conduct organizational planning for stress management. Support institutional efforts for stress management. Provide resources for stress management.

Management/Mid-Management

Continue clear communication with subordinates. Support line correctional personnel. Consider stressful effects of management style. Support organizational stress management efforts.

Line Officers

Increase self management of stress. Increase peer support.

Health/Mental Health

Monitor health of employees. Share treatment responsibility with correctional personnel.

Training

Increase pre-service stress awareness. Increase in-service stress management training. Prepare promoted personnel for new responsibilities.

Personnel

Screen employees for stress tolerance. Designate EAP resources. Define job roles, responsibilities, performance expectations.

Legislative

Consider stress related effects of corrections legislation, (e.g., overtime, under pay, facilities quality).

Once a stress management strategy profile has been completed, an assumption can be made that the manager is ready for implementation. But, this presupposes that other strategies have been explored, analyzed, and rejected. The fact of the matter is that the manager must first engage in a priority-setting process to ensure that the strategy of choice is the one which is most important, has the greatest urgency, and/or is the one which can be addressed most easily and completely by the organization.

In order to assure the relevancy and importance of any selected strategy, it is imperative that top management review its analyses of the perceived problems, analyze the consequences for individuals and the organization for each problem, explore alternatives available, establish priorities, and then settle on the strategy for implementation as a result of its formal deliberations. This, in essence, is the process of decisionmaking or problemsolving.

There is no magical formula available that will enable the manager to choose among alternatives and develop a course of action. Instead, it is important that cause and effect relationships, consequences of problems and alternatives, and impacts of potential solutions be explored. This means that the entire spectrum of issues be examined, dealt with, and analyzed.

The first step in the process is to identify the nature and meaning of the perceived problem. If, for example, there is a high absenteeism rate, one cannot assume that a stress management strategy will either prevent or cure the problem. It may be that absenteeism is symptomatic of low wages and personnel are moonlighting on other jobs. Thus, the solution to the problem is a budgetary or management policy oriented one, not a reflection directly of stress (even though low wages can indeed produce stress for some workers).

If, after a careful analysis, management finds that absenteeism is a direct result of stress on the job (or off the job), then a stress reduction strategy is a potential solution. The next step is to assess the impact this problem is having on the organization and the affected employees. These impacts may be in terms of money (sick leave, costs for training of replacing workers who have been fired, lost wages), time (hours spent in rearranging shift assignments), morale (low wages can cause low sense of self esteem), and/or political interference (elected officials inquiring about policies and procedures and forcing new policies on top management).

When the manager has isolated the consequences of the problem, he or she is in a better position to compare one problem against another in terms of establishing some idea of their seriousness of the problem. Thus, the first step in the problemsolving process, after identifying the actual problem is to determine what the consequences of the problem might be if left unattended or uncorrected.

The next step is to review possible alternative strategies for bringing about an improvement in the problem. Insofar as the absenteeism example is concerned, alternatives might include: (1) changing personnel policies about moonlighting jobs, (2) increase the wages so that second jobs are not needed, (3) improve interpersonal relations among and between colleagues and superiors (if this is a cause), and/or (4) rotate shifts to accomodate desired worker changes in assignments (if this is a cause). Thus, we find that changes in management policies might impact the absenteeism rate; or we find that some kind of stress reducing strategy is in order.

With regard to alternatives 1, 2, and 4, management can carry out the implementation, in part, merely by issuing directives. With regard to change 3, a training program would be needed.

If we assume that change 3 is the appropriate course of action, then the next step is to explore what it would cost to implement in order to achieve a specific goal of improved interpersonal relationships that reduces perceived personal stress. Costs, in this instance, can be broken into several categories: dollars, time, equipment, space, personnel, and supplies. That is, depending upon the source, target, and nature of the program to be implemented, it is necessary to determine what resources will be needed to mount an effective program of change. Money may be needed to hire a consultant, pay for released or overtime charges for personnel to attend a program, to arrange for a

facility away from the institution for the program, and to pay for other costs of materials, equipment, and supplies. This figure, although not all out-of-pocket, could be a very high one, depending upon the nature and extent of the projected program.

Once a determination has been made concerning the resources needed to mount such a program, the next step for the decisionmaker is to compare the various proposed programs of change. Here one may find considerable differences in expenses, both in terms of money and time. Based on the outcome of such analysis, the manager may be forced to decide that he or she cannot afford such a program (it will take too long, the resources are not available, and/or there is low likelihood that it can be approved by superiors). If this is the case, and the problem is still one which has the highest priority for attention, it may be necessary to locate an alternative strategy for implementation. In this instance, instead of a group training program, the manager may decide to refer individual employees with the highest absenteeism rates to the institutional psychologist or psychiatrist for a treatment program to reduce the perceived stress.

Thus, the gains to be expected as a result of the strategy must be defined in precise objectives so that the manager not only knows what has been causing the problem and what he or she can do about it, but the consequences of intervention as well. In the final analysis, if there is no way that the organization can implement a strategy that will produce desirable consequences at an affordable cost, this strategy and this problem may have to be abandoned at the present time in favor of addressing another problem or another strategy.

Implied in the above is that once a strategy has been implemented, it is imperative that some kind of evaluation be built into the program. This is necessary in order to provide the manager with measured data that will assist him or her in determining not only whether the intervention had impact on the individuals (reduced stress, reduced absenteeism), but the impact on the organization (absenteeism rates were reduced, political interference was curtailed, costs for retraining were lowered) as well.

This evaluation strategy need not be elaborate, but it must be planned and incorporated into the project itself. Without such feedback, the manager will not know if the program strategy worked, if it should be utilized in the future when the same problem rears its head, or if the program needs to be modified in the future. The feedback loop, of course, is not complete until all persons involved and/or impacted by the problem of stress have been informed of the results of the intervention. The final payoff of the evaluation aspect of the program is the clearcut message that topmanagement does indeed care about its organization and staff and that it is willing to do something about the problem. It also conveys the message that the topmanagers are indeed managing.

Session 8

DAY II

1:00 - 3:00 p.m.

STRATEGY PRESENTATION

Goal

- Participants will become familiar with one or more organizational strategies for management of stress.

Objectives

Participants will:

- Understand at least one detailed organizational strategy for stress management.

Synopsis

There will be one or more plenary presentations of corrections stress management plans for critical organizational operations.

PLENARY SESSION
ORGANIZATIONAL PLANNING AS STRESS MANAGEMENT

1. STRESS FOCUS

   A. PERSONAL/EMOTIONAL
   B. ORGANIZATIONAL

2. ADMINISTRATIVE MODELS

   A. INTUITIVE
   B. METHODOLOGICAL
   C. CORPORATE/LEGAL MODEL

3. PROGRAMMATIC PROCESS

   A. CAUSATIVE MODELS
   B. MENTAL HEALTH MODELS
   C. UNREALISTIC PROGRAM GOALS
   D. FADS (GENERALIZABILITY)
   E. ADMINISTRATIVE SUPPORT FOR VARIED PROGRAM APPROACHES

4. POLICY DEVELOPMENT

   A. CRIMINOGENIC vs. SOCIAL POLICY
   B. PUBLIC SCRUTINY
   C. STANDARDS

5. CASE STUDY - FLORIDA STATE PRISON

   A. FSP PROFILE
   B. FLOW DEVELOPMENT
   C. PHASE CONCEPTS
   D. PROJECT MANAGEMENT
   E. SEQUENTIAL TECHNOLOGY
   F. LONG RANGE vs. SHORT RANGE PLANNING
   G. PHASE I PLAN
   H. STAFF INPUT
   I. INMATE INPUT
   J. PROJECT STATUS REPORT
   K. TRAINING MODEL
   L. PHASE II PLAN
   M. BUDGETARY INFLUENCE
   N. FOLLOW-UP & FEEDBACK
   O. GENERALIZABILITY
   P. FUTURE TRENDS

Session 9

DAY II

3:15 - 5:00 p.m.

STRATEGY PROFILES

Goal

- Participants will outline potential strategies for the state team to develop.

Objectives

Participants will:

- Complete at least one strategy profile outline
- List at least three other strategies with potential for planning.

Synopsis

This unit is designed to facilitate participant development of strategies.

SMALL GROUP DISCUSSIONS

Strategies

The following strategies, drawn from the literature on stress are suggested as possible ways for each functional unit of the correctional organization to identify, prevent, and remedy distress.

Operational Strategies are those practices and procedures which modify existing operations to take account of their potential for stress mitigation.

Influential Strategies refer to the potential for stress mitigation second-hand, through the influence of specialists on overall management philosophy and policy.

A. Administrative

1. Operational
   a) Design, implementation, and monitoring of an overall stress management plan for the organization.
   b) Review and re-design of the structure of work (job assignments and responsibilities) to provide clarity of roles, communication, responsibility.
   c) Stimulate and monitor the efforts of training, personnel, health, rehabilitation units at mitigating effects of stress.

2. Influential
   a) Justify improved management structure, staffing and job roles to executive branch and legislature.
   b) Attempt to influence community view of corrections and correctional employees.
   c) Recruit, screen, and employ qualified personnel.

B. Personnel

1. Operational
   a) Screen employees.
   b) Develop job-related standards for hiring.
   c) Initiate staff performance reviews.
   d) Initiate self-help groups.

e) Provide employee self-help counseling and referral.

2. Influential

a) Restructure work experience.

b) Clarify job performance criteria.

c) Initiate performance review system.

d) Advocate sabbaticals, transfers, recuperative leave policies.

C. Training

1. Operational

a) Orientation training on the nature of job stress in the correctional environment, its role in affecting work performance, and the ways and means to cope with stress encountered on the job.

b) In-service training to deal with stress encountered in organizational changes, program development, critical incidents, and promotions/demotions/transfers.

c) Voluntary training groups of personnel on work/family life stress effects, identification of problems, design of remedies.

2. Influential

a) Advocate more democratic, line-responsible management.

b) Facilitate transfers through re-training.

c) Train employee self-help leaders.

D. Legislature/Executive

1. Operational

a) Provide adequate budget support to documented correctional initiatives.

b) Involve correctional managers in budget/program design.

c) Support correctional management programs to mitigate stress.

2. Influential

a) Recognize and aid the identification, prevention and mitigation of stress in the correctional environment.

b) Educate the public on the goals and state policies for corrections.

E. Health/Mental Health

1. Operational

a) Monitor employee health/stress factors.

b) Monitor inmate health/stress factors.

2. Influential

a) Impact organizational stress management plan on health/stress factors.

b) Facilitate employee self-help for health/mental health resources.

F. Personal

1. Operational

a) Learn how to identify, prevent, and remedy stress in your own life by knowing your manageable stress level.

b) Design a personal stress management plan.

c) Learn and implement techniques of time-management, behavior modification, and others appropriate to reducing stress in your own life.

2. Influential

a) Be alert to your stressful effects on others.

b) Allow others the freedom and resources to manage their own stress.

c) Contribute to the recognition and remedy of stress on an organizational level.

STRATEGY PROFILES

1. Small groups will meet together to share possible strategies for use in planning. (30 min)

2. Each participant will review the strategies described rate according to feasibility for implementation. (3 most important, 1 least important.)

3. The three highest rated strategies will later be discussed with the group in detail for potential agency or institutional planning.

EXERCISES:

1. Prepare individual statements.
2. Brainstorm other possibilities.
3. Evaluate each possibility.
4. Prioritize list.

Worksheet - Session 9

1. Strategies Reviewed — Ratings

a. _____ 1 2 3

b. _____ 1 2 3

c. _____ 1 2 3

d. _____ 1 2 3

e. _____ 1 2 3

f. _____ 1 2 3

g. _____ 1 2 3

h. _____ 1 2 3

i. _____ 1 2 3

2. Three major strategies for planning consideration:

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

(attach profiles)

STRESS MANAGEMENT STRATEGY PROFILE

Program: _____

1. Source:

2. Target:

3. Operational/Influential:

4. Cure/Prevention:

5. Management Unit:

SCHEDULE

DAY III

9:00 - 10:00 a.m.	Strategic Planning
10:00 - 12:30 p.m.	Development of Action Strategy*
12:30 - 1:00 p.m.	Summary and Close

*State groups meet

Session 10

DAY III

9:00 - 10:00 a.m.

STRATEGIC PLANNING

Goal

- To familiarize participants with the process of strategic planning for a correctional setting.

Objectives

Participants will:

- Understand a strategic plan process for organizations
- Understand driving and restraining forces affecting change in the correctional setting
- Understand the development of a strategy for initiating change in an organization.

Synopsis

The nature, meaning, and significance of change in the correctional setting is discussed both from a theoretical as well as pragmatic point of view. The Force Field Model, as developed by Kurt Lewin is presented. Applications of the model are developed for the prison setting, using as an example the initiation of an alcohol treatment program for prison employees. The nature of problem solving also is discussed so that participants will be able to complete an action strategy for possible implementation in their respective organizations.

Change Process

One needs little discussion of the dinosaur or blacksmith shop to be convinced of the inevitability of change. In the course of evolution, organisms which did not change became victims of their own environments. Similarly, organizations, including corrections, which have been unable to adapt to the demands of a growing and rapidly changing society have long since ceased to realize their goals or significant growth. Change occurs whether we like it or not. The primary issue, then, is that of determining the role of the manager in planning for change, as opposed to being a victim of change.

The correctional manager, confronted with the inevitability of change, is particularly concerned with the problem of making change work for him or her. It is the manager's task to sort out planned change from accidental change so that only the more constructive aspects of the process may be realized. For the manager and the organization, change is the basic condition of growth and without growth the task of achieving and sustaining effective performance becomes increasingly difficult and unrewarding.

From the standpoint of short-range needs, it is often more comfortable for individuals and organizations not to change; it is frequently easier merely to let things ride--always hoping that the lid can be kept on the institution. It is also easier to let someone else do it--taking the blame, of course, if there is failure. A person's reluctance to trade the security and comfort associated with old ways of doing things for the insecurity and discomfort of change is understandable when one considers the meanings change may have for the individuals confronted with it.

Demands for change, whether externally or internally generated, actually represent alterations in the lives of people and touch most of the elements and processes upon which they depend for day-to-day security. Change, whether incremental or dramatic, always affects a whole range of beliefs, values, norms, goals, and needs which individuals rely on in doing their work. Further, changing anything in the work setting usually has a bearing on job-satisfaction, self-actualization, communications, and collegial relationships--both for the employee as well as for the manager. Therefore, it is little wonder that people often feel neglected or disenfranchised when change is demanded of them in areas they feel of crucial importance to their well-being on the job. They may comply, for a multitude of reasons, but by-products of apathy, suspicion, and resistance are frequently manifested as well.

Manager as Agent of Change

There is no doubt that people who are comfortable are reluctant to change; but failure to change, when it is indicated, demanded, or needed, can breed discomfort. For the manager, this paradox poses a special dilemma. On the one hand he or she faces the very real problem of serving the comfort needs of security and belongingness for his or her subordinates, while, on the other hand, he or she faces the adaptation needs of creativity and growth for the organization. As such, the manager, wittingly or not, is cast in the role of

an agent of change on behalf of the organization. It is the manager who must effectively accomplish the organization's work through other people, and this means that it is the manager who must introduce changes in work procedures, personnel policies, and the like. The effects of this management undoubtedly are widespread--even have a ripple effect, touching not only subordinates, colleagues, and superiors, as well as the organization, but moving full circle to affect him or her as well.

Planning for Change

Change is bound to occur. The question, however, is not should it occur, but how it will occur. Whether it will occur smoothly and is constructive or whether its occurrence is marked by resistance and ineffectiveness is determined in large measure by the manager's knowledge of and skills at being a change agent.

As with any applied process, the way in which change is viewed and the objectives toward which it is aimed often dictate the actions taken by managers in introducing change. It is in this respect that one of the problems characteristic of organizational change may be better understood. Change, by definition, presupposes the existence of a fairly stable on-going system with well-defined norms of operation, relationships, and internal structures. Thus, change occurs within some organized context and is aimed at modifying elements and relationships within that context. If this were not so, the process of change would not be change at all, but rather a process of organizing. Traditionally, however, many managers have tended to view change as if it were in effect simply a problem of organizing, or more specifically, re-organizing. Consequently, the process of change has been approached much as the process of re-organization, and managers have diligently employed techniques primarily designed for effective organizing in planning for change.

In drafting a plan for change, managers have tended to logically deduce the functional bases for grouping operations, provide new criteria for the division of labor and the delegation of authority, and modify authority relationships. In doing so, managers have approached change from the standpoint of functions to be performed rather than from a systematic understanding of the cause-and-effect relationships which may facilitate or inhibit effective change. In attempting to modify the rules under which people work, their relationships with others, and the value of their individual skills, more is needed than technically adequate planning, directing, and controlling. No matter how well controlled, change cannot merely be implanted in the organization--this is no more than re-organization and is not likely to produce effective results. In short, some awareness of the unique characteristics of change is necessary if the manager is to perform his or her implicit function as a change agent.

As previously indicated, it is to be noted that change is not simply a matter of re-organization and, for this reason, is less amenable to the "rules of thumb" usually applied in organizing than might be suspected. Programs of re-organization usually attempt to incorporate those worthwhile attributes of an on-going system, while deleting the less worthy--or harmful--aspects. In doing so, these programs are usually based on a assumption of the essential rationality of the change process and those affected by it. Thus, mistakes can be evaluated and those elements in the organization which are found wanting can be tossed out because it is logically correct to do so.

But what may seem logically sound to those planning re-organization may not be so sound to those affected by the program. The simple deletion from plans of a given practice does not necessarily ensure a like exclusion of that practice from the minds of employees who must implement the change. A new procedure for sick call for inmates does not necessarily mean that correctional officers will adapt to the change. Thus, management's failure to recognize all the forces operating in change may be one of the reasons that technically correct programs or re-organization fail to mesh and can result in internal conflicts instead of the anticipated improvements. Consequently, there are "people" issues, and the former are often less responsive to the logical approaches employed in organizing materials and functions.

Manager's Toolbox - Dynamics of Change

It is true that many managers may not want to concern themselves with other than technical aspects of management. This, however, is a decision the individual manager must make. But, to the extent that change, like management itself, is to be accomplished through others, it would seem that the manager's toolbox must include not only an understanding of the basic managerial functions, but an understanding of the dynamics of change as well.

Although the correctional manager must be operationally and pragmatically oriented, he or she must have a theoretical framework for analyzing the total process of change so that its effects may become both predictable and understandable. That is, if we can get a handle on what change is, how it occurs, and its impacts on employees, it is much more likely that as a process, change can be managed and effectively implemented.

Force-field Analysis

An approach which many correctional managers are already familiar with is that suggested by Kurt Lewin, a noted behavioral scientist. Lewin theorized that any on-going system may be thought of as a level of activity. For example, a prison's ability (rate) of classifying inmates reflects some level of standardized activity within the organization. Such a level is seen by Lewin as a resultant of a number of forces. There are forces which cause more of the activity (a better, higher, or faster rate); and therefore, tend to increase the level. There are also forces which oppose the activity and tend to decrease the level (a reduced or lower rate). Lewin calls those forces which increase the level driving forces; and those which tend to decrease the level, restraining forces.

Now, within the framework of Lewin's model, driving and restraining forces are conceptualized as working in opposition to one another, much as credits and debits work against one another on the accountant's balance sheet. The level of activity, as a resultant of these opposing forces, reflects changes in either the driving or restraining forces and fluctuates, rather than remaining completely static or stationary. In most situations, as the level of activity shifts in one direction, the strength of opposing forces increases. Thus, for example, a decrease in the rate by which inmates are classified may elicit increased demands for a higher rate. Change, therefore, is thought of as an attempt to either raise or lower the level of on-going activity and is seen as occurring within a field of forces, some of which facilitate and others of which oppose the modification. Within the management context, therefore,

change would seem to involve a number of forces which the manager, if he or she could influence their strength, could utilize in effecting constructive change.

An Example

By way of an example, a current stress management program of change used by some correctional officials is that of an alcohol treatment program for correctional officers. A look at some of the driving and restraining forces which affect the introduction of such a program might provide some insights into the change process and an understanding of Lewin's Force Field model as an analytical tool for the manager contemplating change. The first question to be asked is "What are the forces (driving) favoring an alcohol treatment program and what are the forces opposing (restraining) it?" One possible field of forces is shown below in schematic form.

DRIVING FORCES (+)	RESTRAINING FORCES (-)
Desire to help employees	No time for program
Employees wanting help	Job security threatened
Union support of programs	Union lack of support
A treatment program available	No treatment specialist available
Personnel department approval	Employee resentment
Need to reduce sick leave	Workers not interested
Inmates support program	No space for program available

As may be seen from the diagram, forces leading to a change in the organization concerning alcoholic workers may be the organization's need to help subordinates, union support, the availability of a treatment program, and a need for higher morale among staff. These may be countered (and therefore the change held back) by inadequate union support, unavailability of space for the program, employee resentment, and the threat of job security. Some of the forces, driving or restraining, may be organizational in nature or may be personal in nature. They may be forces that occur within the organization or they may be external. However, the manner in which these forces are handled will dictate the success of the program for change.

It may be predicted, according to Lewin, that should the restraining forces be ignored and the change (program) introduced, the strengths of those restraining forces are likely to increase, thus tending to block an effective shift in the level of activity. Similarly, as the restraining forces increase in strength, a concomitant need for increased driving forces is experienced, thus increasing the tension in the total system. As an example, if employees feel threatened by such a program and management ignores those feelings by insisting the program be implemented anyway, tension is likely to result in

the organization. Effective change is not going to occur. Such tension-wracked systems are not uncharacteristic in today's prisons. The next question, then, is how may the forces at work be managed to achieve smoother and more constructive programs of change?

Forces of Change

Succinctly, changes in the activity level of Lewin's model may be produced by both adding forces in the desired direction, or by diminishing forces. The two methods, however, have quite dissimilar consequences associated with them.

As mentioned previously, the addition of forces may cause change to occur, but it is change accompanied by increased tension and therefore is less stable. On the other hand, a reduction in forces allows change to occur with a concomitant diminution of psychological tension. Thus, within the example used, the introduction of an alcohol treatment program for correctional officers could be produced by increasing management's desire to help workers (i.e., by increasing the driving forces), or by reducing workers' feelings about job insecurity associated with attending such a program (i.e., by reducing the restraining forces). Enough managers have been witnesses to labor-management disputes and strikes, or worker apathy, to appreciate the forms increased organizational tension can take when driving forces are increased. Too few managers, although there are increasingly more, have had first-hand experience with the by-products associated with attending to and reducing restraining forces, however. The traditional approach to change has obscured the importance of restraining forces and focused the manager's attention on performing those functions well which are primarily instrumental in increasing driving forces.

Roles of the Manager

The manager, therefore, must reconsider his or her role if he or she is to function effectively as a change agent within the organization. The manager is, within a change context, something more than a planner, innovator, director, or contoller. He or she is in addition to all of these a manager of forces. If the manager can identify all of the forces operating in the field within which change is contemplated, determine which of these forces are amenable to influence, and devise ways of both reducing and increasing appropriate forces he or she may find that the task as a change agent will become more rewarding. Hopefully, the Force Field model presented here will aid the correctional manager from the standpoint of analyzing change; but in order to plan for the reconstitution of forces, he or she must know something of the substance as well as dynamics of the forces themselves. These, of course, include the motivations for change, the responsibilities for change, and the conditions for change.

It should be recognized at the outset that these are essentially "people" forces rather than technical and represent, therefore, a domain traditionally of more interest to the behavioral scientist than to the correctional manager. The skill with which he or she manages the forces of change, however, often reflects the assumptions the manager holds about motivation, responsibility, and the way these two interact to determine the conditions for accomplishig work through others. For this reason, such considerations cannot be too

quickly dismissed or parceled out on the basis of a "theory-practice" criterion, but must be confronted by the manager head-on.

Problem-Solving Process

Now, once the manager has been able to analyze the forces which contribute to a specific level of activity within the organization, including their respective strengths, he or she must then continue the change process by engaging in what essentially might be called a problem-solving process for introducing the desired change. If it is known what is to be changed, the forces of both a driving and restraining nature, then alternative strategies for the implementation of change must be considered. This means that the resources required to create change (materials, equipment, personnel, policies, etc.) must be taken into consideration. It may be that certain resources will be too expensive, unavailable, or not available at the appropriate time. It may require bringing about a different level of change before the selected program can be implemented. For example, if a restraining force to an alcohol treatment program is that of personnel policies at the state level which forbid such programs, that policy will have to be changed before employee resistance (threatened job security) can be dealt with.

Action Strategy

After alternatives are explored, including an analysis of their strengths, costs, utility, etc., an action strategy of implementation can be developed. The nature of such implementation, of course, depends not only upon the managerial style of the manager (authoritative vs. participative) and the quality of the resources available, but the importance of the program itself. That is, the change process must be determined within the context of the organization itself as well as the people who will be involved and/or affected by it. The actual strategy should include not only planning, but follow-up and follow-through to ensure that it is accomplished. This means that it is the manager's responsibility to ensure that someone is named to monitor the planning of change process, which includes determining who will do what, when, how, why, where, and with what specifically determined resources. It means that once the change process is initiated, to make sure that it is finished will require a commitment and a sense of responsibility on the part of those involved.

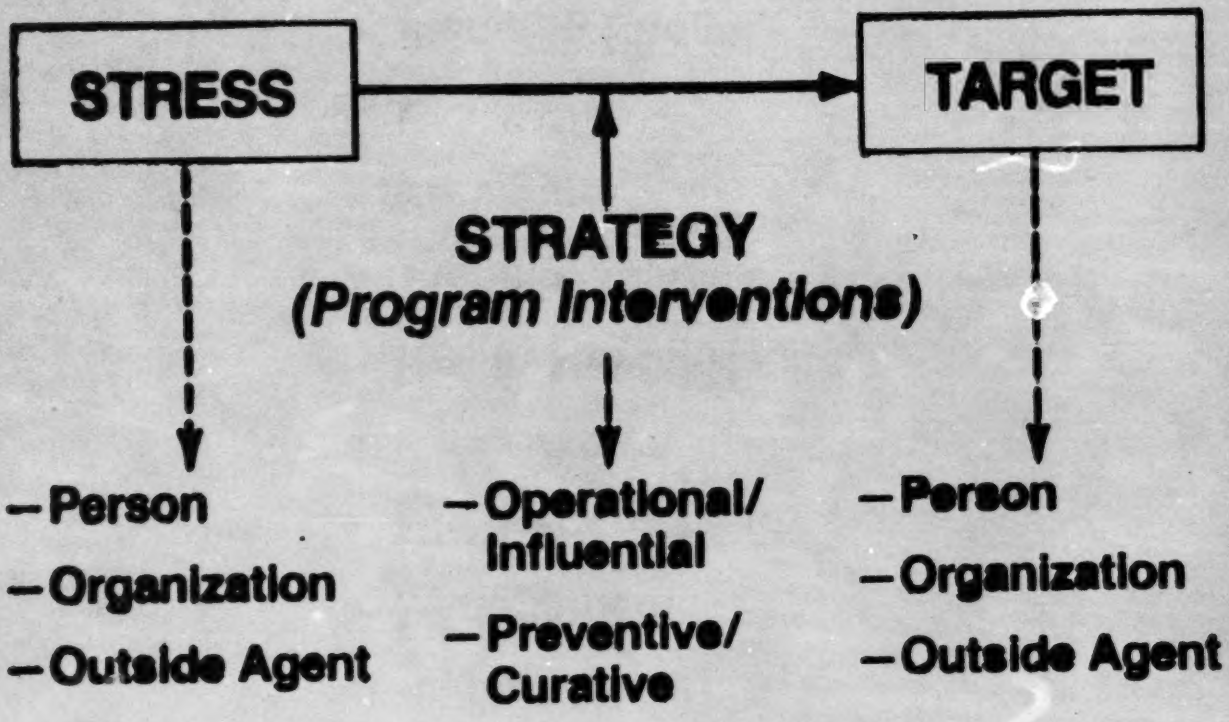
Once the planned change is initiated, it cannot be considered completed until and unless there has been some kind of evaluation to determine its effectiveness. This does not necessarily mean a very rigorous or methodologically sound evaluation design; but it does mean that a determination must be made at the outset of the program that evaluation will occur and that it has been built into the very program itself. The bottom line is "Did it work"? Additionally, the manager will want to know how much it cost him or her to produce the level of success (if any) that was achieved. How much in the way of improved performance? How much in the way of improving the effectiveness of the organization and the personnel? "Was it worth it?" is an important question for the manager to determine.

In the final analysis, any attempt at change will result in a change in the level of activity in that particular area of concern which has been addressed. And, as Lewin has pointed out, any level of activity exists, at a given moment, as a result of the interplay between driving and restraining

forces, which are viewed as being in a constant state of tension. Any change will impact not only the level of activity, but the tensions existing or perceived to be existing within the organization. It is important, therefore, to make change not only responsible and responsive, but meaningful, productive, and functional for the organization as well as the people who work within it.

Intervention Points

- Administration
- Management
- Mid-Management
- Line Officers
- Health/Mental Health
- Training
- Personnel
- Legislative
- Planning/Budget
- Other


STRESS
TARGET
STRATEGY
(Program Interventions)
– Person
– Organization
– Outside Agent
– Operational/ Influential
– Preventive/ Curative
– Person
– Organization
– Outside Agent

Stress Management Strategy Profile

In order to plan a useful stress management program for an agency or institution, it is important to carefully consider again the strategic points in stress management planning. Sources, targets, operational vs. influential strategy, and curative vs. preventive efforts, must be considered in order to insure that the program planned will effectively achieve its aims.

The design of a profile for organizational action based on stress management strategic principles is an integral part of stress management planning and will become a central focus for the agency operational plan.

An example of this type of strategy profile follows, using a spouse pre-service orientation program as the case study.

The source of the stress is judged to be marital discord due to officer job stress, and in particular reported spouse discontent. Possible reasons for this include overtime, shift work, low pay, low status, dangerousness of work conditions, or a combination of these elements.

The target of any remedy is primarily the spouses, officers secondary, which indicates a clear priority to change spouse behavior.

The program chosen here is preventive, to focus on new recruits' spouses. Training and personnel units will operate and design the program jointly, with training as the operational component of the program.

STRESS MANAGEMENT STRATEGY PROFILE

(Example)

Program: Spouse Pre-Service Orientation

1. Source: Officer reports of marital discord due to job stress. Spouse discontent.

2. Target: Spouses (primary), officers (secondary)

3. Operation/Influential: Training unit will have responsibility for the program, with influential support from the personnel officer.

4. Cure/Preventive: Stress preventive program to prepare spouse for job strains to be experienced by officer, aid in building support for employee.

5. Managerial Unit: Training and personnel division cooperative program. Personnel will identify recruit's spouses, solicit voluntary participation. Training will structure spouse orientation program.

STRESS MANAGEMENT STRATEGY PROFILE

Program: _____

1. Source:

2. Target:

3. Operational/Influential:

4. Cure/Prevention:

5. Management Unit:

REFERENCES

Newman, John E., and Terry A. Beehr, 1979. "Personal and Organizational Strategies For Handling Job Stress: A Review Of Research and Opinion." Personnel Psychology. Spring (32) 1-43.

Force Field Analysis

Driving Forces (+)	Restraining Forces (−)

Session 11

DAY III

10:00 - 12:30 p.m.

DEVELOPMENT OF STRATEGY PLAN: TEAM MEETING III

Goal

- Participants will develop a state team strategy plan for stress management.

Objectives

Participants will:

- Consider at least three strategies for management of stress
- Select one advantageous strategy for prime effort
- Construct strategy plans for stress management.

Synopsis

Participants are asked to focus on defining the prime strategy.

INSTRUCTIONS

State Team Strategy Plan Development

1. Products of the state team meetings thus far include:

   a. List of major stressors of the organization (Session 3)

   b. Top five major organizational stressors (Session 3)

   c. Maladaptive and adaptive organizational responses (Session 6)

   d. Strategy profiles for planning (Session 9)

2. This session will require the use of all of these products, as well as the information from Session 10 (Planning for Change) to fully develop a strategy plan.

3. The strategy plan consists of:

   a. One selected strategy.

   b. Action strategy plan for the optimum strategy

4. When your state team has completed the plan, share it with the other states in your group.

MANAGEMENT OF STRESS IN CORRECTIONS

ACTION STRATEGY SUMMARY

State: _____

Date: _____

1. Contact Name(s): _____

   Title: _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

2. Agency/Department: _____

   _____

   (Area Code) Phone Number

---

3. General Description of Strategy:

   Who will do it - _____

   What will be done - _____

   _____

   _____

   When will it occur - _____

   _____

   Where will it occur - _____

   _____

   Why will you do it - _____

   _____

ACTION STRATEGY

4. Program Design

   o Write goal statement for action strategy. A goal statement -

   - Identifies the desired outcome
   - Specifies the target group
   - Focuses on a selected need
   - Is consistent with the agency's purpose.

_____

_____

_____

_____

   o Formulate program objective(s) from the goal statement you used. An objective -

   - Identifies the target group
   - States the results in measurable terms
   - Identifies when the result will happen.

5. Program Objective: a. _____

   b. _____

   c. _____

6. Strategy Choice:

   o From the worksheet on the next page consider possible strategies.

   o Choose the "best" strategy, the one with the fewest negative and the most positive weights.

   o List strategy selected for achieving objective and target population.

_____

_____

_____

6.

Possible Strategies Worksheet	Consequences	Force + or -	Weight*
	Direct		
	Indirect		
	Direct		
	Indirect		
	Direct		
	Indirect		
	Direct		
	Indirect		
	Direct		
	Indirect		

*Weight (+1, +2, +3, -1, -2, -3 or Major/ Moderate/Insignificant)

ACTION STRATEGY WORKSHEET

7. Significant milestones:

a. Begin date -

b. End date -

c. Interim milestone -

d. Interim milestone -

e. Interim milestone -

ACTION STRATEGY

9. Evaluation Strategy

   a. Who

   b. How

   c. When

10. Final Report

   a. Done by -

   b. Form -

   c. To whom -

Session 12

DAY III

12:30 - 1:00 p.m.

SUMMARY AND CLOSE

Goal

- Summarize the tasks of the workshop.

Objectives

Participants will:

- Understand the procedure for follow-on workshop requests
- Evaluate the workshop
- Receive program completion certificates.

Synopsis

This session includes an opportunity for participant evaluation of the workshop, and presentation of program completion certificates. Procedures for application for follow-on workshops are also explained.